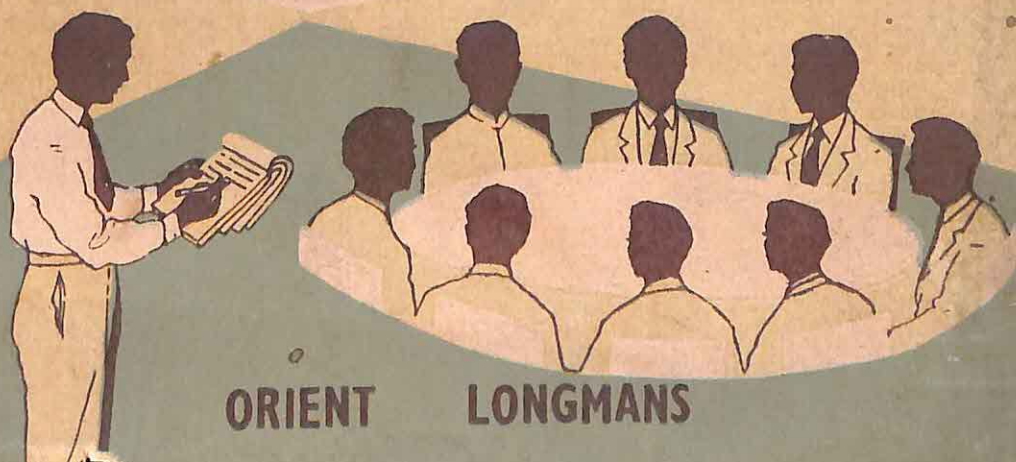




EDUCATIONAL
TECHNIQUES IN
COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT

J. ROSE



ORIENT LONGMANS

The Author

Born in 1921, Sri J. Bose, was educated in Ballygunj Government School, Calcutta from where he matriculated in 1937. He left for England in the same year and after passing the London Matric., he joined the London School of Economics in 1938. He graduated from there in 1942 receiving a B.Sc. (Econ.) Degree with Economic History as his special subject.

After graduation, he did some research work under the guidance of Mr. H. L. Beales, Reader in Economic History, University of London. During this period, he also worked as part-time lecturer, serving under the Workers' Educational Association, Great Britain and the Extramural Department of Cambridge University, lecturing to British audiences on Political Theory, Social History, India, etc., in different parts of eastern and southern England.

In 1945, immediately after the cessation of World War II, he came back to London and stayed there for the remainder of his sojourn in Britain. During this period, he associated himself with the India League and worked as a part-time journalist under the guidance of Sri V. K. Krishna Menon. He returned to India at the end of

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EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES
IN
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Educational Techniques

In

Community Development

J. BOSE

*Principal, Orientation and Study Centre,
Kalyani, Nadia*



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FOREWORD

THE manuscript *Educational Techniques in Community Development* by J. Bose came to me as an agreeable surprise. I could hardly believe that any regular worker in the Community Development Programme could have the surplus energy and initiative to undertake this complex task as an extra-curricular assignment. The size of the manuscript somehow looked formidable in type. But, once I opened the cover, I found it difficult to close it without having run across the whole volume.

The book is a superb effort of the author. Not being a specialist in teaching methods, I am not qualified to pass judgement as to the technical merit of the publication. I am convinced, however, that it has been written with honesty, integrity and industry and is backed by a sound mind with long experience both in the class-room as also in the field. The material presented in this publication should offer many a challenge and help ease the clogging of mind that one meets with so often in the sphere of education of the adults.

I am deeply struck by the spirit and the quality of mind that have gone into the making of this publication. I can commend it warmly to all fellow-workers, whether in the field or in the class-room, who have yet not 'arrived' and are supple enough mentally to wish to think and learn.

S. K. DEY

*Minister for Community Development
and Cooperation, India*

PREFACE

THE literature on community development, which is barely more than a decade and a half old in most underdeveloped countries, is growing at a rapid rate. Extension work in particular, dating back to over 50 years in countries like the United States, has a vast literature.

But the books which we have in India, are mostly of foreign origin, describing situations which are somewhat different from those prevailing here and are not always of much practical use to us. It is true that a small number of good books have been recently written on community development in this country, but to the best of my knowledge, there is no book which deals comprehensively with all the important teaching methods which we use in the field and in the training centres.

This book intends to make a beginning in this direction by discussing in detail some of the important teaching methods and trying to show how they can be used in class-rooms to train community development workers, and in the field to influence the habits and attitudes of the people.

Although the educational techniques that I have discussed are applicable anywhere, the book has been primarily written for extension workers, trainers and general educationists in India. Most of the examples quoted have also been taken from Indian experience in general and my own experience in particular.

The choice of the title and the sense in which the terms 'community development' and 'extension' have been used in this book, also require some elucidation.

Many writers use 'community development' and 'extension' almost in the same sense. But there is a clear distinction. Community development is a general concept which aims at all-round development of a community through comprehensive economic and social programmes. Extension, whatever may be its original meaning, is now understood as the main method by which community development is accomplished. This method tries to induce people democratically to bring about the desired changes themselves.

Extension work then is educational in nature and extension

methods are primarily teaching methods. But the two are not quite synonymous, because the word 'extension' seems to convey a wider meaning and cover a wider area than pure education. For instance, planning, execution and evaluation may be part of extension work, but I do not think they are teaching methods. Similarly, group mobilisation may be an extension method, but not necessarily a teaching method.

Since I have confined myself only to those methods, which can be used to teach skills in different subjects, I have used the term 'educational techniques' which has a narrower significance. I prefer 'educational technique' to 'teaching method', because the latter has an air of condescension about it. In community development, the man who teaches, learns as much as the man who is taught. The term 'educational technique' would therefore seem to be more appropriate.

The book is, on the whole, a product of the experiments I have been conducting on educational techniques over the last three years in our Training Centre. It would be fitting, however, to mention that I have been inspired by many authorities and have conveniently borrowed from them in many places. The names of these authorities and their publications are included in the attached bibliography.

I would like to close this by acknowledging my debt to my friends and well-wishers. I am immensely grateful to Sri S. K. Dey, Minister for Community Development and Co-operation, Government of India, who found time to go through my manuscript in spite of heavy pressure of work and to write the foreword. I can only hope that the book will live up to the generous praise which he has bestowed on it and be useful to teachers and extension workers.

I am also grateful to Sri S. N. Mozumder, I.C.S. (Retired), for encouraging me to write this book and to my American friend, Miss Fern Edwards, who went through the manuscript meticulously and corrected the mistakes. My old friend, Sri Satyen Moitra of the Bengal Social Service League, who kindly gave me permission to publish a literacy chart and my colleagues at the Training Centre, particularly Sri S. C. Kanungo, Sri D. K. Mookherjee and Sri A. K. Sil, who exhaustively discussed some parts of the book with me and made valuable suggestions, also deserve a large share of

my thanks. Special mention must be made of Sri Panchanan Paul who drew the cartoons and of my stenographer, Sri K. P. Das, but for whose tireless work, the book would have taken much longer to finish.

I shall be happy if my colleagues in the community development movement derive some benefit from my small effort.

J. BOSE

28th June, 1965

CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
FOREWORD	v
PREFACE	vii
<i>Chapter</i>	
ONE THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT	1—19
What is Community Development —The need for Educational Techniques.	
TWO TEACHING AND LEARNING THROUGH THE EYE AND THE EAR	20—110
The Lecture Method, Audio-visual Aids, Demonstration, Field Trips.	
THREE LEARNING THROUGH PARTICIPATION	111—174
Discussion, Workshops and Camps.	
FOUR TEACHING AND LEARNING THROUGH THE WRITTEN WORD	175—199
Importance of Literacy, Utilisation of Books.	
FIVE CASE STUDY	200—222
SIX CREATING CONDITIONS FOR APPLICATION OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES	223—239
Administrative difficulties and their rectification, Defects in training and their rectification.	
SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY	241—242
INDEX	243—246

CHAPTER ONE

THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Section I

WHAT IS COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT?

DEFINITION

The term 'community development', which has come into vogue since World War II, refers specifically to the attempts made in underdeveloped countries to regenerate the people through comprehensive and democratically operated economic and social programmes. These programmes have a rural bias, because in most underdeveloped countries, the chief occupation of the majority of people, is agriculture.

There is no reason, of course, why community development should be considered in the modern context only. Communities have been developing from the beginning of history and they will continue to develop as long as they are communities. Had it been otherwise, civilisation would not have progressed.

Nor is there any reason, why the term should be applied specifically to underdeveloped countries. The process of development is universal, irrespective of whether the country is advanced or backward.

But, perhaps, community development has certain special significance for underdeveloped countries, because it focusses attention on the acute need, in these countries, for quick economic and social progress to be brought about in a democratic manner by conscious and organised community effort aided by the government. It is this aspect of community development which was absent in the past.

ASPECTS OF C.D.

(1) *All-sided programme*: Community development is distinguished from other programmes by its comprehensiveness. It is, in fact, a simultaneous and multi-pronged attack on all the problems of community life. It has to be necessarily

so, because the problems of community life are interrelated and because progress in any direction cannot be achieved, unless there is progress at the same time in other directions also.

(2) *Programmes executed through a certain method*: Apart from being a comprehensive programme, it is a programme executed through a certain method known as extension. This method believes in the dissemination and adoption of new ideas and new practices, through persuasion and not coercion. Its emphasis is on self-help.

(3) *A process*: Thirdly, community development is not a programme and a method only. It is also a process. It is a process because the will to improve, once generated correctly, does not stop. The change continues like a ball rolling. The people are eager, if they succeed once, to undertake one project after another and move from success to success.

(4) *A movement*: Lastly, community development is a movement. It will be more correct to say that community development has the potentialities of a movement, because it is possible to make people emotionally involved in it, as in a political movement, with the programme assuming a spontaneous character, gathering momentum and firing entire communities with energy and enthusiasm.

ASSUMPTIONS ON WHICH THE CONCEPT OF C.D. IS BASED

The theory of community development is based on certain broad assumptions. These assumptions are like pillars which support the roof of a house. Just as the roof will collapse, if the pillars give way, so will also the concept of community development be invalidated if the assumptions prove incorrect.

What are these assumptions? In the first place, there is the economic assumption that the greatest resource of a country is its people. Examples from contemporary history strengthen this assumption. West Germany, for instance, was devastated by war. Her towns were razed to the ground. Her basic industries were totally destroyed. In 1945, it seemed that Germany was doomed. Yet by 1949—only 4 years later—the great German miracle took place. West Germany has become since then not only the leading industrial country in Europe; she now has one of the highest living standards in the world.

Japan is an even more striking example. The country is poor as far as raw materials are concerned. She has very little coal, no iron ore, or oil. She lost her market and her empire after World War II. But her recovery has been amazing not only by Asian but by world standards. She is now not only the leading industrial country in Asia, with a higher living standard than any other in this continent, but today she is the world's biggest ship-building nation and a competitor of West Germany in camera manufacture.

The recovery of West Germany and Japan is due primarily to the quality of the people. Their examples show that if a nation is determined, disciplined, united, patriotic, hardworking and honest, it can become prosperous without having abundant industrial resources.

For this reason, the supporters of community development consider that their greatest asset is the untapped labour power of the millions living in the villages. If the will to improve is once generated among the people and their vast reservoir of labour power properly tapped, development can become rapid and limitless.

The concept of community development is also based on the sociological assumption, that the two basic social units which are likely to develop in line with community development ideals, are the family and the village community. These two units can, therefore, be taken as the primary units of development, because of their great possibilities of cohesion and creative power. Large-scale and qualitative social transformation can be effected through the cumulative efforts of small projects undertaken in thousands of village communities.

Its two other sociological assumptions are (a) that the principle of helping people to help themselves is fundamental to modern social work and (b) that all people, however backward, have latent powers of self-development.

Its chief psychological assumption is that people are more likely to carry out voluntarily a programme which is their own than one which has been imposed on them. The community development programme, therefore, has always based itself on the felt needs of the community.

The concept is also based on certain philosophical convictions. The first among these, is a conviction in the intrinsic

worth of every human being, in his essential dignity and ability. Secondly, it is based on the conviction that people can and should determine their destinies. In short, community development springs from the fundamental belief in democracy.

OBJECTIVES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community development anywhere has three main objectives: (i) economic development, (ii) democratic growth and (iii) social consciousness.

It tries to bring about economic development through various programmes aimed at increasing agricultural production and improving the standard of living in the villages.

As for political growth, community development tries to bring this about by developing and strengthening institutions of local government. Building up democracy from the grass roots is not only an objective of community development, but a necessary condition for its success.

Another way by which political growth can be achieved, is by developing unity and patriotism among the people. In India, for instance, it is a lamentable fact that people, whether in villages or towns, lack patriotism in comparison with the peoples of Europe, Russia, America or Japan. On the other hand, there is a common tendency to deprecate everything Indian. Even a common shopkeeper tries to sell his products by labelling some as 'belaiti' and others 'deshi' meaning something inferior. This often surprises foreign visitors.

Patriotism can only be generated if the people take pride in their own achievements. This sense of achievement must start from the village level. If the villagers in a concerted way achieve something, they will speak with pride of the achievements of 'our village'; later it can be expanded to a sense of pride in the achievement of 'our Block'; then 'our sub-division' and district and finally to our country, as cohesive action of people in bigger and bigger groups develops.

Community development therefore, tries to build up patriotism from the grass roots, by making people at all levels, conscious of their achievements. It can thus be a means of bringing about national unification.

The third major objective of the programme is the development of social cohesion among the people. Because without cohesion there cannot be any collective action. Moreover, development of man himself, as experience has shown, is thwarted if he lives in a society where people have no attachment for each other. The workman who speaks without feeling of his mother's death in Albert Camus' famous book *The Outsider* has become callous because he has lost the sense of belonging anywhere and has nothing to live for.

Community development seeks to prevent all this. It aims at building a type of environment where the predominant human virtues of love, sympathy and mutual confidence can be developed to the maximum, where men will have a sense of belonging and living for something.

It is for this reason that small village communities where such an environment is possible, have to be maintained and further strengthened. In India, where social divisions like caste and untouchability stand in the way of unity, one of the principal aims of community development must be to remove these divisions and help all classes of rural people.

Social problems, of course, cannot always be tackled by direct programmes. Caste and untouchability, for instance, will only disappear, when people become enlightened. But community development can help in the process, by encouraging programmes whose success depends on co-operation between different groups.

TECHNIQUES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

To realise the objectives of community development and particularly to foster self-help some new techniques are necessary. These techniques can be broadly classified as techniques of: (a) extension education and (b) community organisation.

Extension education aims at bringing about qualitative change in the individual and building up his self-confidence through an improvement in his knowledge and skill.

Community organisation aims at restoring harmony in village society, preventing further sub-divisions, building up democracy from the grass roots, removal of social prejudices and promotion of social justice.

The community development worker must, therefore, be an

extension specialist and a community organiser. As an extension worker, he must involve the members of the community in systematic discussion on their felt needs, guide them in systematic planning to carry out the self-help projects selected by the community and help them in organising and harnessing community resources. He has often to give technical advice and help to obtain such materials as may be necessary, in adequate quantities and at the proper time.

As a community organiser, he has to approach people, not as individuals, but as members of institutions and organisations. He has to work with and utilise different types of village leaders; he has to recognise the informal and special groups. In short, he has to know how groups and sub-groups form and operate in a village and how they can be made dynamic and creative.

PROGRAMME AND ORGANISATION

Although the basic nature of community development is the same everywhere, each country has evolved its own organisation to administer the programme. The emphasis laid on different items in the programme, also varies from country to country because of tradition and local needs.

From the point of view of organisation, community development in all underdeveloped countries can be conveniently divided into three types viz., Integrative, Adaptive and Project.

(a) *Integrative organisation*: The Integrative type of organisation is countrywide in nature and emphasises the co-ordination of all the technical departments in the execution of the programme. It also calls for an agency attached to the Prime Minister's office or a separate Ministry with operational responsibility for the programme; or it may have a cabinet level committee presided over by the Prime Minister.

At the ground level, an Integrative type of programme employs village-level workers as a link between the villagers and the Government's technical services. In some cases, new administrative areas are created within traditional ones in order to co-ordinate technical services at a point closer to the people.

India provides the clearest example of this type of organi-

sation with a Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation at the Centre and corresponding Ministries at the State levels co-ordinating the development activities of different departments. At the district level, District Officers who co-ordinate the activities of the different departments also control the Block Development Officers, who are in charge of National Extension Service Blocks—the newly created administrative units in the community development organisation in India.

The Block Development Officer is assisted by a team of specialists known as Agricultural Extension Officer, Industrial Extension Officer, Veterinary Assistant Surgeon, Panchayat Extension Officer, Social Education Organiser, Medical Officer, Co-operative Extension Officer and Rural Engineer.

Each Block comprising approximately 100 villages, has 10 Gram Sevakas and 2 Gram Sevikas. Each Gram Sevak is in charge of approximately 10 villages. The Gram Sevikas concentrate their work on one or two villages from where women's work is expected to radiate to other villages.

To make the programme effective, community development in India emphasises the building up of people's organisations and particularly local government institutions like Gram Panchayats. Panchayati Raj which envisages a three-tier system with Zilla Parishad at the district level, Panchayat Samiti at the Block level and Gram Panchayat at the village level, is a political corollary of community development. Through these institutions community development helps to build up democracy from the grass roots.

Another good example of the Integrative type of organisation is in the Philippines, where President Magsaysay in 1956, established the office of the Presidential Assistant for Community Development. This small secretariat in the immediate office of the President is today responsible for (i) planning and implementation of the programme in the existing administrative areas, (ii) integration of the activities of all of the departments and offices engaged in community development, (iii) promotion of community development councils, (iv) development of grant-in-aid programmes to stimulate participation and (v) recommendation of suitable legislation.

At the highest level, there is an inter-departmental co-ordinating committee with similar committees at provincial and municipal levels. The municipal council with the Mayor as the Chairman and comprising representatives of each of the technical services and agencies represented on the provincial council, as well as private citizens, supervises: (i) approval of projects; (ii) co-ordination of existing technical services; and (iii) planning and implementation of the programmes at the municipal level.

(b) *Adaptive organisation*: The second variation known as the 'Adaptive' type, is also countrywide in scope, but it retains the existing administrative structure. New administrative units and new ministries and departments are not created. Operational responsibilities for this type of programme are vested in any one of the existing departments.

Ghana is an outstanding example of the Adaptive type and the pattern of her organisation is more or less followed in other African countries. The programme in Ghana is countrywide in character. Instead of a Central Ministry or Agency, co-ordinating the work of all departments in respect of community development, the programme has been entrusted to the existing Department of Social Welfare. This department works through regional and district development committees whose jurisdiction coincides with the existing administrative units. These committees function under the chairmanship of administrative officers and consist of both officials and non-officials.

Community Development, which in Ghana is known as Mass Education is run by an Assistant Director in the Department of Social Welfare and two specialist Community Development Officers at headquarters. There are ten other C.D. Officers stationed in the five regions of the country, in the ratio of two officers per region. The senior of the two, called the Principal C.D. Officer is in charge of the region and normally stays at regional headquarters. The second C.D. Officer tours and inspects, as well as assists the C.D. Officer-in-charge.

Each district is under the charge of a Mass Education Officer in respect of community development work. He is mainly a touring officer and usually has a university degree

or diploma in social science. Below him is the senior Assistant Mass Education Officer who may be in charge of a section of the district or in charge of a small district reporting direct to the C.D. Officer. Under him are a number of Assistant Mass Education Officers, each in charge of a group of Mass Education Assistants who are responsible for the work in anything up to 15 villages. The Mass Education Assistant is thus the lowest ranked functionary in the community development hierarchy in Ghana and is comparable to the village-level worker in India or the barrio-level worker in the Philippines.

(c) *Project organisation*: This type of community development programme predominates in Latin America but is also common elsewhere.

The Project type of organisation can be: (a) inter-ministerial in character, with primary responsibility for administration vested in a functional ministry; (b) run by an autonomous agency under the general direction of an official appointed by the President and a council composed of representatives of Ministries and other Government and private institutions; or (c) multi-functional, with responsibility for both policy and administration vested in a single department.

But the distinctive feature of this type of programme is that although multi-functional, it is limited in geographic scope, to certain parts of a country.

The point to bear in mind is, that this division of community development programmes or organisation is not rigid. Some countries exhibit characteristics of both Integrative and Adaptive types. Moreover, in view of the dynamic nature of community development, some Project type programmes may become Adaptive types and eventually assume Integrative patterns. On the other hand, Integrative programmes can become Adaptive or even Project, if the situation demands.

EMPHASIS ON DIFFERENT ITEMS IN THE PROGRAMME IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

A comparative study of the contents of the programme in different countries and the emphasis placed on different items, also makes interesting reading.

(a) *India*: The Indian programme which is probably the

most comprehensive of its kind, is aimed at developing the village society in all its aspects—material, intellectual and spiritual. For this, a large number of schemes have been devised.

To foster increased production of food, there are several agricultural schemes, e.g. saturation of rural areas with improved seeds, soil conservation, afforestation, land reclamation, application of fertilisers and manure on a large scale, use of improved implements and provision of irrigation water.

Schemes in animal husbandry, like the upgrading of cattle through natural and artificial means, supply of improved poultry at subsidised rates, goat, pig and sheep rearing and pisciculture on scientific lines—are also aimed at meeting the pressing problem of food supply.

To finance agricultural operations, there are comprehensive schemes providing for short-term credit facilities to cultivators through Co-operative Societies. There are also schemes for the development of cottage and small-scale industries to deal with rural unemployment.

Apart from the economic programmes, there are also a number of educational programmes to develop rural communities socially and spiritually. Extension of primary and secondary education through setting up new schools and improving existing schools in Blocks, extension of literacy among village adults by establishing night schools, social educational centres and rural libraries may be mentioned in this connection.

There are also programmes for women and children, for tribals and for special groups.

But this is not all. Extension programmes exist for improving communication in rural areas, for construction of community centres, for extension of public health and sanitation including both preventive and curative work like vaccination and inoculation, opening of primary health centres and family-planning clinics, etc.

Although the total programme remains the same, owing to the recent food crisis, community development in India has to accord over-riding priority to agriculture. Attempts are being made at encouraging rural people to draw up production plans in agriculture. Certain districts have also

been selected for intensive agricultural development where production is boosted by supplying seeds, fertilisers, manures and irrigation water on an intensive scale to progressive farmers who are members of co-operative societies and have prepared farm production plans.

Another interesting development in the Indian programme is its growing flexibility. Instead of a single uniform pattern being imposed on the entire country, as was done previously, the present programme makes allowance for the distinctive needs of different areas. There are not only special programmes for tribal Blocks, but also for hill areas, arid areas, and maritime areas.

(b) *Ghana*: Some features of the programme in Ghana are in sharp contrast to the Indian. For one thing, while agriculture has demanded increasing attention in the Indian programme, in Ghana the over-riding stress has always been on literacy. Moreover, community development in Ghana has not been exclusively confined to rural areas as in India.

When the Ghanaian programme originated in the early fifties, the first plan that was evolved for community development, placed heavy emphasis on the eradication of illiteracy, because it was taken for granted that no single factor contributed more to backwardness than ignorance due to illiteracy. It was also believed that literacy would not only teach the actual skills of reading and writing but also remove the feeling of inferiority from the illiterate, inspiring them to diversify their occupations.

But mass literacy was accorded primary importance and around this core, the Ghanaian programme has been drawn up. The literacy programme, although launched more intensively, follows the same pattern as in India, Pakistan or South-East Asian countries. Village literacy committees are normally formed to assist in the organisation of classes and in raising funds for lamps and kerosene oil. After three months of instruction in literacy, following the Laubach method, examinations are held consisting of simple dictations as well as reading unseen passages and answering questions. If the candidate is successful, he receives a certificate which complies with the UNESCO standard of literacy. Great attention is paid to prevent the literates from lapsing into illiteracy

again and for this, literacy kits consisting of literature for neo-literates, are sold at a cheap price to the villagers. Follow-up reading materials and newspapers are also issued.

Apart from literacy, work among women has also received a great deal of attention in Ghana. The work among women is concentrated in limited areas where women's groups are established over a period of time. In the mass education centres, apart from literacy, sewing, cooking, housecraft classes, courses in hygiene as well as instruction in child welfare, is given. In many villages, there are weekly meetings of women's groups or clubs who eventually select leaders for the one month's course in homecraft, hygiene, sewing, child care and teaching practice provided in Rural Training Centres. On their return, these women assist the community development workers in teaching the group. The women are encouraged to bring their young children to these courses, as this provides an excellent opportunity for practical training in child care.

An important aspect in the work among women, is setting up crèches, where mothers can leave their children to be looked after while they are trading or farming. The tendency is to establish these nurseries in village halls built by communal effort. Training of the day-nursery staff is undertaken by the Department of Social Welfare at periodic courses.

Encouraging village projects through voluntary effort is another aspect of the Ghanaian programme. The projects which are encouraged are the building of roads, village latrines and village halls. An interesting project and one which is very popular in Ghana, is building the 'Henderson Box' type of water tank, where the water is directed through a concrete channel into a coarse filtration tank containing sand and stone and then into the storage tank by the outlet pipes.

The people are helped in the execution of village projects by the mechanical field units which are concentrated in regions and districts and which provide technical assistance.

(c) *Iran*: Iran presents another variation. Her community development programme centres round the sale of crown lands to the villagers living on them, and is concentrated in areas where distribution of crown lands has taken place. Schools, agricultural experimental stations and co-operatives are

established in these villages and the emphasis as in India, is laid on the improvement of agriculture.

(d) *Other Middle Eastern countries*: Yet another variation is provided by some Middle Eastern countries like Iraq or Lebanon where services are extended to the villagers mainly through a number of community welfare centres where improved practices are demonstrated. Some of these centres have crèches for infants, day schools for boys, boarding schools for girls, recreational facilities, poultry farms and experimental kitchen gardens and orchards. The community development programme in these countries is run, as in Ghana, by the Department or Ministry of Social Welfare.

(e) *Egypt*: The comparative study would not be complete without a mention of Egypt where a vast new area called 'Liberation Province', is literally being carved out of desert sands. The land reclaimed for cultivation is being resettled by carefully selected landless families from the surrounding overcrowded areas.

The emphasis in this project is on building model villages, where families which are selected on the basis of certain criteria, are settled. Every village has a multi-purpose co-operative managed by the government. There is a central co-operative retail market in each village, which also has a central compound for all livestock in the area.

DIFFERENCE IN TECHNIQUES OF ACTION

Apart from differences in the programme, sometimes slightly different techniques are followed by underdeveloped countries to foster community development. For instance, in India until 1959, the main initiative in community development came from government workers who formulated policies and executed programmes, whereas in Ghana and other African countries emphasis has been laid from the outset on training voluntary groups and village leaders and allowing the initiative to come from them. In Jamaica particularly, extension work is partly done by voluntary agencies, whereas in India or in the Philippines, it is the trained government worker who is entrusted with this.

India has dispersed her extension services and believes in influencing the villager in the village itself, whereas many

underdeveloped countries have concentrated their technical services in rural training centres or community welfare centres.

India has concentrated mainly on result and method demonstrations to introduce improved methods. Ghana and other African countries have mainly used the Campaign Methods whereby, only for certain periods in the year in specially selected areas, intensive campaigns on subjects like literacy, malaria eradication, cocoa plantation, etc. is carried out by the extension workers through concentrating all available technical and educational resources.

In Jamaica again, under the 'Better Village Plan', the approach is to form groups of people in rural areas and utilise their joint initiative, talents and skill, to effect improvements in village conditions. The emphasis is on group formation and on linking up with existing community organisations such as the Church, parent-teacher associations, co-operatives and branches of the Jamaica Agricultural Society.

Section II

THE NEED FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES

The educational nature of C.D.: The comparative study of community development in different countries clarifies one point. Whatever may be the approach, the emphasis everywhere is on effecting the desired improvements through a change in the attitudes and habits of the people.

This makes community development primarily an educational programme, inasmuch as it has to employ educational methods to achieve its objectives. Whether literacy drives are launched or campaign methods used, result demonstrations set up or visual aids exhibited, the aim everywhere is to educate the villager in new ways of thinking and living.

Community development is also educational in the sense that democratic group action is itself an educational process. When people meet to think, discuss, plan and act together, they undergo an educational transformation.

The emphasis on education is due to the belief that all

improvements to be sound socially, effective economically and permanent physically, must emerge from the people's own decision to act, using their own resources to the maximum and relying on government aid to the minimum.

But at the moment, most people in villages are not equipped for deciding or making the proper choice. They may have a vague desire for improvement, but no specific idea of what improvements are most desirable or feasible. Inhibited by prejudices and fatalism, they have lost all hopes of improvement and have accepted their lot as an act of fate. They may also have false values and uneconomic habits such as spending disproportionately large amounts on festive occasions, leaving very little for investment on economic propositions.

They have, therefore, to be educated to make the right choice and the most of their abilities. This educational process is possibly the only means whereby rural masses can be democratically involved in development programmes and taught how to help themselves with a minimum of Government aid. Only through education will people make substantial improvements on their farms, in their homes and in their community and if they do all these things themselves, the changes will be enduring.

Without this emphasis on education for intelligent participation in democratic action programmes, there is the danger that the product would become more important than the process. In fact, this is the case in a number of underdeveloped countries where physical achievements like roads built, wells sunk, schools constructed—no matter how—are assigned greater importance than the educational change in the people. Needless to say, this shift in emphasis has hindered rather than helped the progress of community development.

Type of education required: It is obvious that the type of education which is most needed to provide the initial impetus is not for dissemination of knowledge only; its primary aim would be to influence modes of thinking and ways of doing things. It would teach people to practise new ideas themselves because it holds that the teaching will be inadequate until the knowledge is put into practice. It would also

teach people what to want as well as how to work out ways of gratifying their wants. It would make them better individuals as well as better members of their families and village communities. It would develop initiative and leadership qualities, so that they can play an effective part in re-shaping rural society.

In more specific terms, this education would teach villagers to augment their incomes from their existing occupations by the application of new methods. It would impart better methods of utilisation, development and conservation of local resources and of solving problems through group action.

Above all, this education will be a two-way channel. It will convey scientific information to the villager and it will pose their problems to the scientific institutions for solution. It is thus a process in which both the learner and the teacher contribute and receive.

Need for variety of teaching methods: In view of its educational nature, it is not surprising that in some countries literacy drives constitute the major content of the community development programme. Not only does literacy enable a man to acquire knowledge from one major source, viz. books, but it also sharpens his mind and helps him to respond to his environment in a more effective way. But while a good case can be made for literacy, it is also true that it takes a long time—perhaps a generation or even longer to make a nation effectively literate.

Can we afford to wait that long? Can we just sit back hoping that when our next generation becomes literate, the country will be automatically changed? We cannot and there are many reasons why we cannot.

For one thing, due to rapid increase in population, the gap between production and consumption is continually increasing, in favour of the latter, in all underdeveloped countries. It is a terrifying fact that the population of underdeveloped countries is increasing at such a phenomenal rate that unless this trend is controlled, most of these countries will be confronted with an acute food shortage and famine, if not other disturbances. In fact, some scientists are of the opinion that unless speedily checked, this 'population explosion' will constitute the greatest catastrophe of the century.

But this can only be prevented if people everywhere consciously and intelligently resort to birth-control measures. At the moment, they are not conscious of the necessity for family planning. They have to be made so through education and this education has to be imparted quickly. For unless immediate measures are taken, most of the countries instead of progressing may sink deeper and deeper into poverty.

This is not the only reason why every one—whether young or old, has to be educated quickly. The people of underdeveloped countries have become restive. On account of the growing pressure of population and increasing poverty, they clamour for quick changes. No democratic government can resist this outcry. But since progress is to be primarily effected by the people themselves, they must be educated quickly, to enable them to use their newly acquired skill and knowledge to achieve progress.

Thirdly, unless the people of underdeveloped countries can achieve rapid progress, they may lose their freedom. The loss of freedom may stem from an external foe who is more advanced, but more likely it will be due to internal subversion. No democracy can exist permanently if the majority of its people are uneducated.

Fortunately, modern science has placed many new educational techniques in our hands with which we can influence people in numerous ways within a short period. The cinema, the television and the radio, are a few of the devices through which we can communicate improved ideas to a large number of people in a way not considered possible even a few years ago.

Actually, a combination of methods is needed, if we desire quick changes. Moreover, the methods will have to be varied according to the type and the educational level of the people, on whom they are employed. In some places, for instance, knowledge can be imparted through traditional teaching methods like lectures and books. Where people are literate, preliminary knowledge of different subjects may be acquired from lectures and followed up by the study of books.

In villages, however, where the villagers are illiterate, imparting knowledge through books, is at present out of the question. Erudite lectures are also likely to bore village audi-

ences who are unaccustomed to this form of instruction. Discussion on subjects which are concerned with the day-to-day experience of the villagers supplemented by audio-visual aids like flash cards and flannelgraphs or films or field trips will interest them more and be more meaningful to them. Village people who have never seen, for instance, a model dairy or an improved method of poultry keeping, will have to be taken to government farms where these can be displayed. Demonstrations of modern implements like Mould Board Ploughs or any improved methods of farming like the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation will have to be conducted before their eyes, to drive home the lesson and catch their imagination. Rural exhibitions must be organised periodically in interior villages, to make the people aware that a better way of life can be possible with a little more knowledge, planning and effort.

Application of educational techniques in training: New educational techniques are not only required to educate villagers; but they are also required to train extension workers within a short period.

As has been pointed out an extension worker must possess two separate types of skills—skill to educate and convince people about new ideas and methods, and skill as a community organiser. Technical skill may be difficult to acquire; but it is not uncommon. Any person of average intelligence and with aptitude for a particular subject, can acquire skill in it, with constant study and practice. Moreover, in most jobs where people acquire technical skill, they deal with objects that are more or less regular and predictable and to that extent subject to control.

But working with people, whose behaviour is much less simple, regular and predictable, requires a special type of skill. To quote Sri D. K. Dey, Minister for Community Development and Co-operation, India, 'Physical sciences can be developed to certain points of perfection. The mind and spirit of man, however, present a different front altogether.' It is this aspect of the job—dealing with 'Man—the unknown', that makes a community development worker's task, not only unique but more difficult to perform.

Both these types of skills can be imparted to an extension

worker by using a variety of educational techniques described in the next few chapters. A large number of these methods like lectures, audio-visual aids, field trips, exhibitions and demonstrations, impart teaching through the eye and the ear. Others like group discussions, workshops, seminars and camps are methods where people learn through active participation. Literacy training and the study of books constitute learning through the written word.

Another method of teaching which has recently come into vogue and which cannot be included in any of the categories mentioned above, is the case study. Through this method, the accumulated experience of field workers can be brought into the classroom to train future workers. It is one of the important methods by which an extension worker can be given preliminary training and some idea as to how to work with people.

CHAPTER TWO

TEACHING AND LEARNING THROUGH THE EYE AND THE EAR

A MAN derives his knowledge of the phenomenal world mainly through his senses. Among these senses, the major content of his knowledge is derived through the eye and the ear. Teaching and learning through the eye and the ear, therefore, cover a wide variety of methods. The lecture which we hear, the audio-visual aids which help us to understand something better, the result and the method demonstrations which we see, the processes we observe—all these are teaching and learning methods which come under this category. Let us now see how each of them contributes to the learning process in community development and to what extent we can improve these methods to better our learning.

Section I

'THE LECTURE METHOD'

CAN WE DISPENSE WITH LECTURES?

Among all the teaching methods, the oldest and the most commonly used, is *the lecture*. Till quite recently, its efficacy as a teaching method in all situations, was never seriously questioned. It is only recently that the pure lecture has come in for considerable criticism, particularly in adult education programmes. Some have dubbed it a one-way mode of communication, limiting, if not totally excluding audience participation. Others have branded it as a 'dull and stereotyped method of teaching'.

But while there may be some grounds for these criticisms, can we dispense with lectures altogether in community development or adult education programmes? Definitely not. Every teaching method is unique and is to be used at particular times, in particular places and on a particular group

of people. The lecture still remains the most effective method of communication in particular adult learning situations. One cannot, for instance, start giving practical demonstrations or plunging into discussions, unless the students or fellow-learners have some elementary ideas on the subject, which can be introduced through books or through lectures. If we try to substitute a lecture always by discussion, we are more likely to end up by pooling our ignorance than achieving collective wisdom.

What then is the particular utility of the lecture? A lecture, we all know, is an oral communication of a message from an individual to a group. As it is a message from an individual, it has a personal element in it, which makes it unique and different from other methods. Even if identical lecture-points of lesson-plans are prepared by two lecturers on the same subject, the lectures will be as widely dissimilar as the personalities delivering them. The audience in one case, may be bored or restless while in the other, they may be held spell-bound. In one case, people may leave the lecture hall with an empty feeling, neither understanding nor retaining what they have just heard. In the other, people may go away exhilarated with a feeling of positive gain and absorbing a large amount of what they have heard. One lecturer may merely deliver a set of lifeless facts while the other may invest these facts with anecdotes, with humour, with suspense and drama. One lecturer may be unable to clarify any of his points, and thus fail to convey his message while the other may succeed in clarifying his statements so well that repetition or further clarification may not be necessary.

But apart from being a personal mode of communication, the lecture is also the most organised form of communication devised so far. Discussions, however well-organised, run helter skelter as they necessarily must, because of their being expressed by different minds. The continuity and the orderly arrangement of thoughts, which are possible in a lecture, can never be so in a discussion. Of course, when discussion is recorded, we try to edit the various comments and expressions made by the group members and arrange them in a systematic way. But, editing a discussion robs it of one of its main advantages—spontaneity.

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Similarly, giving a demonstration may be better than delivering a lecture in some cases, but the fact remains that in a demonstration, it is not possible to show all the different stages of a process as they may occur over a period of time. If, for instance, one is trying to teach the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation to a group of students, by taking them to the field, one has to take them for a full season covering 6 (six) months if they are to witness all the stages beginning from preparation of the field and the seed-bed right up to harvest. This may not always be possible. Therefore, a good lecture supplemented by audio-visual aids like flash cards or film strips, showing the different stages of the process, followed by a field trip will be the best method. Where time is short, where economy of words in presenting thoughts has to be effected, the lecture is the best method. For in no other method, can one have within a given time, such systematic marshalling of thought.

But this does not exhaust the utility of the lecture as a method. For introducing a subject, for giving basic preliminary ideas, for suggesting possibilities, for opening up the mind, the lecture is probably the best method. It may be argued, that books may serve the same purpose. But they do not. If someone wants to acquire knowledge on a subject he is not acquainted with, particularly on technical subjects, he may not understand some of the basic terminology used in the books. Whereas the lecturer with his past experience, his knowledge, his assimilation of basic ideas and his power to illustrate them, can introduce the subject much better than books, to the beginners. In fact, all subjects can and should be introduced through lectures. This should be followed up by reading, discussion, and practical work, where necessary.

We can, however, dispense with the lecture in certain situations. Subjects like, 'How to conduct a meeting?' or 'How to make the Panchayats work successfully', can perhaps be better introduced through role-playing than a lecture. Where the people have a wealth of experience on any subject, they can plunge into discussion straightaway without the benefit of an introductory lecture. Village audiences may find formal lectures incomprehensible and boring.

But in spite of all this, most subjects related to community

development can be introduced through lectures, particularly in training institutions for community development workers. Even in villages, short talks accompanying a demonstration or an audio-visual aid, are not only useful but essential.

HOW TO MAKE LECTURES EFFECTIVE

The effectiveness of a lecture depends on the extent to which it is retained. The responsibility for making lectures effective, rests squarely on those who deliver as well as on those who listen. A good lecturer can help his audience by making his lecture interesting, lucid and useful. The audience on their part can encourage the efforts of the lecturer by being attentive and can help him to clear up obscure points by asking useful questions.

The utility of a lecture depends ultimately on its subject-matter content. The arrangement of the subject matter in a presentable form is, therefore, the first step in lecture preparation.

To start with, every lecturer must know his subject matter thoroughly. This demands continuous study. There is no other answer. Acquisition of knowledge remains as painstaking today, in spite of the latest techniques and aids, as it has always been.

But assuming the lecturer has mastered his subject, he must carefully organise it. If he is delivering a series of talks on any subject, he must divide the entire material into equal divisions, each division corresponding to a lecture. The lectures in the course should be so arranged that one lecture naturally leads into the other.

Organisation of subject matter: Now comes the question of organising the subject matter of an individual lecture. The lecturer must know the amount of material that can be packed into the period allotted to him. As is very often the case in our training centres, we cram too much material into one lecture. This results in either the lecturer scurrying through the entire lecture at breakneck speed in his anxiety to complete it within the specified time, or lingering unduly on the first few points and constantly finding that he cannot complete the lecture within the period. The consequence in the first case is that students very often fail to follow the lecturer because of his speed and in the second case, a large part of the material is completely omitted.

The correct judgement as to how much material can be utilised within the period can result from past experience, advice of experienced lecturers or from rehearsing the lecture with a watch. For beginners, the last method would be good. From our experience in the training institutions, we feel that not more than 4 or 5 points should be introduced in the course of any lecture period covering 40 to 45 minutes.

How to organise subject matter: All subject matter can be classified broadly into two categories—(a) abstract and (b) concrete. A lecturer dealing with an abstract subject is concerned mainly with concepts, theories, principles, etc. In contrast, a lecturer dealing with concrete material is only concerned in his lecture with facts and figures.

Most of the subjects concerning community development are concrete subjects, as the programme itself is a concrete programme dealing with life in the villages and its improvement. Lectures on factual subjects can be organised in many ways, among which the usual patterns are suggested below:

(i) *Chronological arrangement:*

Introductory lectures in a lecture series or part of any lecture, are amenable to chronological treatment, if the lecturer feels that the introduction of some background material would heighten interest and understanding. The arrangement of subject matter chronologically, does not present any problem. Facts can be arranged according to a time sequence; that is, as they appear in the historical scene. For his own convenience as well as that of the audience, the lecturer can divide the background material into parts, each part coming under a particular phase of history. The facts stated under each phase highlight the characteristics of that phase, its problems and its legacies for the future.

For instance, if we want to introduce some background material regarding extension work in India, the whole subject can be divided into three phases as follows:

(a) *Traditional Extension Methods:* Under this, a lecturer can describe briefly the age-old extension methods practised in India through religion, folk entertainment, etc.

(b) *Modern Pioneers:* In this period, we shall start with the

Indian renaissance. The lecturer deals with the work by great Indians like Swami Vivekananda, Gandhiji and Gurudev Tagore on the one hand and foreign enthusiasts like Spencer Hatch, Brayne, Mayer and others.

(c) *The modern trend*: In the last part, the lecturer deals with the modern extension methods which were introduced with community development in 1952 and which are being followed in the N.E.S. Blocks, today.

The strong and weak points and the methods followed in each period, the legacies they have left for the future, are to be introduced by the lecturer under each phase, to arouse interest and help retention.

(ii) *Problem-centred arrangement*:

Most of the subjects connected with community development are based on the problems which the programme is striving to solve. The best way of arranging the subject matter in such cases, would be to start with the basic problem and then analyse the causes of the problem. The lecturer can then move on to the programme which has been evolved to solve that problem. The next step would be to discuss the defects or further problems arising out of the programme. Finally, the lecturer can conclude with some suggested remedies. The advantage of starting with a basic problem is that it grips the attention at once. A few illustrations on how subject matter can be arranged according to the problem-centred method are given below:

EXAMPLE I (SEEDS):

1. Problem—one reason for low production is bad seeds—disadvantages of sowing bad seeds,
2. Present Solution—Programme of seed multiplication and distribution through registered growers—present tendency to multiply and distribute seeds through co-operative societies as suggested by the National Development Council,
3. Some problems arising out of the scheme—problems of pest and disease control—the problem of adequate supply—problem of maintaining purity,
4. Some suggested remedies—roguing of defective plants—

treatment of seeds with proper chemicals before sowing—establishment of seed farms to increase supply, etc.

EXAMPLE II (ADMINISTRATIVE CO-ORDINATION):

1. Definition of Administrative Co-ordination and why it is necessary.
2. Do we have administrative co-ordination at present? Symptoms of lack of co-ordination as seen in untimely supplies of materials and funds, arbitrary posting and transfer of staff, duplication of work by agents of different departments, friction between Extension officers and BDOs etc.
3. Causes of lack of co-ordination—different understanding of community development by different people—over-centralization of power etc.
4. Some suggested remedies—delegation of administrative and financial power—orientation training of different functionaries engaged in executing the programme, etc.

In the two examples, cited above, the first subject was purely factual while the other was partly conceptual. That is why, in the second subject it is necessary to begin with defining the concept of co-ordination and then go on to the problem. Over 90 per cent of the subjects we deal with in our training centres can be organised in accordance with the variations of the problem-centred methods, described above.

(iii) *Logical arrangement:*

Abstract subject-matter, as has been noted already, consists of concepts and principles. Concepts can be arranged in a logical sequence, one idea being tied up with another through a subtle relationship. A simple idea can be stated first and then developed into a more complex idea. Mathematics, particularly geometry is amenable to this kind of treatment. The lecturer in geometry must take his listeners from a simple idea which is assumed axiomatically, step by step to the final proof of the theorem. Some of the complicated systems of philosophy like those of Aristotle, Leibnitz and others have been built up in this way from a simple premise.

In community development, such subjects are few. However, this method of arrangement may be tried in subjects

like 'Philosophy of Community Development', 'Principles of Extension', 'The Meaning of Democratic Decentralisation', 'What is Co-operation', etc. A convenient way of dealing with such subjects is to begin with the definition of the concept, analyse the concept and finally test the validity of the concept in its application to real life. Let us take the first subject—Philosophy of Community Development. It can be treated in the following manner:

1. The need for correctly defining the concept—because, it means different things in different countries and sometimes different things in the same country. To some, community development is synonymous with some form of area development, no matter, who initiates the development; to others, community development is essentially development initiated by the community.
2. The definition of community development given by the United Nations as a process by which peoples' efforts are united with those of the government to improve economic, social and cultural conditions.
3. Analysis of the concept—it has different aspects—it is a programme of all-sided development, but it is not only a programme—it is also a method, a particular way of doing things. But it is not only a method; it is also a process because, it has self-generating character; finally, it can also be a movement with mass appeal and an ideology.
4. The assumptions on which the concept of community development is based—the economic assumption of man-power being the greatest raw-material; the sociological assumption of helping the people to help themselves is essentially based on the results of social work; the psychological assumption of basing programmes on 'felt needs' is grounded in human nature.

Similarly, the other concepts like 'Democratic Decentralisation' and 'Extension' can be defined, broken into their component parts, each part studied separately and then the validity of the whole concept can be deduced by applying it to real life. It may, perhaps, be noted that in the break-up of the lecture on 'Philosophy of community development' an attempt has been made to shift from the basic and complex

ideas of community development which are universally accepted, to its more subtle characteristics and assumptions.

(iv) *Structural arrangement:*

Another type of subject matter organisation, known as 'Structural Arrangement' can be applied to certain subjects.

Supposing a lecturer is giving a talk on local government. He can start from the lowest unit and move upwards to the highest unit of local government; or he can start with the highest unit and move downwards. He may also linger at one level and describe the functions of sub-committees, departments, and other associate organisations at that particular level. Thus, he is arranging his subject matter both vertically and horizontally. This sort of arrangement can be conveniently done, however, only in a limited number of subjects like Public Administration, Business Organisation, etc. Wherever factual data about organisations with many branches and levels is to be presented, this vertical and horizontal division of the subject is helpful. Let us take a subject like Panchayati Raj which is gaining increasing prominence in Community Development Institutions. A lecturer while presenting factual data on the subject, can begin with the Gram Panchayat. He can describe the mode of election and the method of constitution of the Gram Panchayat and then proceed to describe its rights and duties as well as its sources of funds, as provided in the statute. He can next move up to the Panchayat Samiti and similarly describe its mode of constitution, its rights and duties and sources of funds. Lastly, he can come to the Zilla Parishad.

While talking about the Gram Panchayat or Panchayat Samiti, he can move horizontally and describe the sub-committees and the various organisations which are to be associated with the Panchayat at that level. He can also describe the problems which the Panchayat bodies have to face at any area or level and suggest solutions.

OTHER POINTS TO REMEMBER

Two other points in connection with subject-matter arrangement are worth mentioning: (a) arrangement of ideas accord-

ing to importance and (b) arrangement according to contrast or comparison.

(a) *Arrangement according to importance*: A lecturer can effectively impress an opinion or fact on his students, by arranging his points according to their importance. For instance, while detailing the qualities of an extension worker, he can start with the less important qualities first and can complete his statement by saying: 'But above all, the most important quality of an extension worker, is willingness to learn as well as to teach' and so on. In this way, the lecturer will help the trainees remember the most important quality of an extension worker.

If on the other hand, he is trying to impress an opinion on them, he would do well to state various contrary opinions first, discuss and nullify them and then state the view, he is trying to inculcate. This has a good chance of producing the effect he is trying to achieve. The question now arises, whether in a democratic set-up, a lecturer should try to impress his opinion on the students. The prevalent view is that he should present all the facts before the students and let them form their own opinion. But this is sometimes an extreme statement. For one thing it is very doubtful, whether there is a lecturer who states facts and ideas without interpreting them according to a certain bias. If there is, he would be a very dull lecturer indeed.

Secondly, community development has an ideological base. It believes in democracy. It believes in self-help. It believes in working through the people. These are not only principles but attitudes of mind. Should not a lecturer dealing with these subjects, inculcate in his students a type of attitude which will make them good community development workers? In other words, should not a lecturer inculcate among the students, belief in democracy, in persuasion rather than coercion, in approaching the people in a spirit of service? We feel he should. It may be argued that belief in democracy is fostered not by asserting that democracy is right, not by excluding from discussion other systems of government, but by demonstrating the comparative advantages and disadvantages of the different systems and allowing the students to form their own judgments. But here the assumption is that if

the facts are presented correctly and impartially, most of the students will accept democracy. We do not believe this assumption is necessarily true. The students have to be guided towards democracy. All the facts can be presented, but it will make a world of difference how the facts are arranged. Researches on public opinion conducted in the United Kingdom and the United States of America have shown that the opinion which is stated later, leaves a stronger impression on the mind. If, for instance, we state the arguments for and against coercive methods first and later go on to describe the pros and cons of extension, it would leave a strong impression on the mind of the students that extension methods should be given a fair trial. If we do the reverse, the students will leave with a different impression. That is probably why in ancient India, whenever a philosopher wanted to establish his school of thought, he first stated the views of his opponents. This was called *Purba Paksha*. He then demolished the arguments of his opponents by a process called *Khandana*. He finally emerged with his own views known as *Uttar Paksha*. This shows that our forefathers understood the subtle ways of human psychology. In Greece, Socrates and the later Sophists also followed a similar method.

(b) *Arrangement according to contrast or comparison*: Contrasting facts can be an effective way of leaving a strong impression on the student's mind. Thus, for instance, we can say 'In 1956 by using ordinary manure, the production of paddy was 8 maunds per bigha. In 1957, by using fertiliser mixture, the production was 9 maunds per bigha.' This would at once convey the importance of fertiliser mixture as a manure.

How insight can be gained into the nature of planning can be shown by contrasting planning in different countries. The nature of Indian planning becomes clear if we compare it with the objectives and experiments of other countries in the following manner:

PLANNING

<i>India</i>	<i>Western Democracies</i>	<i>Communist countries</i>
Planning is on a National basis and a permanent State Policy	Planning is on a temporary basis	Planning is on a National basis and a permanent part of State Policy.

PLANNING (*Contd.*)

<i>India</i>	<i>Western Democracies</i>	<i>Communist countries</i>
Both the private and public sectors take part in planning	As in India	There is no private sector, only public sectors take part in planning.
Attempts are made to strike a balance between the consumer goods and capital goods industries.	As in India	The emphasis is entirely on capital goods industries.
Economic development is not based on military considerations	As in India	Military considerations play a greater part in shaping economic development, particularly location & selection of industries.

This would indicate that planning in India has certain features in common with both the free and communist worlds, but possesses some special characteristic of its own. By this analogy, a greater understanding of Indian planning is obtained.

In subjects like techniques of 'Community Development', 'Extension', 'Co-operative Movement', 'Local Government', 'Cottage Industries', etc. frequent comparisons from foreign experience can be drawn to arouse the interest of the students and to broaden their vision.

To recapitulate: most of the lectures that are delivered to community development personnel, can be treated according to the problem-centred method, i.e. starting with a problem, analysing its causes and suggesting remedies. Wherever possible and particularly in background subjects, chronological arrangement of subject matter is convenient. In conceptual subjects, the subject matter can be split into a number of concepts and theories, each concept defined, analysed and validated by references to real life.

Lecture assignment: Following up a lecture, with suggestions for further reading, or other activities, increases its efficacy. In our training institutions, most students do not, on their

own initiative engage in study; hence, formal assignments may be necessary.

The study assignments should be designed to clarify the subject still further to the students and increase their breadth of vision and area of interests. For instance, after a brief talk on the administration of community development in India, some students can be asked to consult suitable references and write a comparative study of community development administration in other underdeveloped countries, e.g. Ghana, Egypt, the Philippines or Mexico.

The books selected for reading should not repeat the same information covered by the lecturer. If this is done, the students will either lose interest in reading or become less attentive in listening to lectures. The study assignment should seek to extend and enrich the substance of learning. A good lecture can throw up certain points of enquiry. It is for the students to find answers to the questions raised in the lecture by further reading. Apart from reading assignments, a lecture can be followed up by certain activities like field trips and demonstrations.

Lesson Plan: Based on the above principles, each lecturer can draw up a lesson plan. A lesson plan is something like a work diary for every lecturer to be written down by him on a piece of paper for his own benefit. It should include not only a synopsis of his lecture, but also the different steps he will take to prepare and interest his audience e.g. the use of audio-visual aids, the time he will take to cover the lecture, the questions he will ask the audience to foster discussion, the reading assignments he would give them etc.

The lesson plan should indicate what is being taught before and what is to follow. It need hardly be emphasised that the preparation of a lesson plan, so essential for any systematic and effective teaching, necessitates hard work on the part of the lecturer. He has not only to be thorough and up-to-date in his subject matter entirely, but must also possess a basic understanding of the extension educational processes. His purpose is to create a situation that produces effective learning experience. A model lesson plan is given below:

CLASS	Orientation Course for Block Development Officers and Extension Officers		
SUBJECT	Planning		
TOPIC	First, Second and Third Five Year Plans in India		
TIME	(i) Lecture	..	45 mts.
	(ii) Discussion	..	15 mts.
PREVIOUS BACKGROUND OF LESSON TAUGHT	In the previous talk, the concept of planning and how it evolved was adequately discussed. The difference between the plans of India and those of other countries was also discussed.		

Organisation of the subject matter:

	<i>Time taken</i>	<i>Aids to be shown</i>
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1ST PART

Listing of main points on the blackboard

(1) Introduction of the First Five Year Plan in 1951	..	Flannel graphs and pie charts
(2) Objectives of First, Second and Third Five Year Plans	} 3 minutes	
(3) Outlays against the different plans		
(4) Targets and achievements under the 3 Plans		
(5) Comments on the Plans		

2ND PART

(a) *Elaboration of each point*

Introduction of the First Plan—put into operation from 1951. First Plan—more a compilation of certain existing schemes, than a comprehensive plan drawn from scratch.

3 minutes

nil

(b) *Objectives of First Plan—*

(i) Rehabilitation of the economy. Disruption in India due to partition; irrigated and fertile lands gone over to Pakistan. Jute industry affected. Mass migration of population and misery due to riots etc. So rehabilitation of economy was a principal aim.

3 minutes

Map

(ii) Self-sufficiency in food—Big population increase after partition. Hence, self-sufficiency in food, the most important aim. 'Grow More Food

	<i>Time taken</i>	<i>Aids to be shown</i>
Campaign, notable feature in the First Plan.	3 minutes	Flannel graph
(iii) Rehabilitation of refugees, maintenance and expansion of social services and employment opportunities were other aims.	2 minutes	Flannel graph

Objectives of Second Plan:

(i) To bring about a socialistic pattern of economy	3 minutes	nil
(ii) To attain rapid growth of national economy by developing basic heavy industries like Coal and Iron	3 minutes	Flannel graph
(iii) To provide employment facilities for a rapidly growing population.	2 minutes	nil

Objectives of Third Plan:

(i) Most objectives are the same as the Second Plan	1 minute	nil
(ii) Distinctive objective—to strive for self-sustaining economic growth.	3 minutes	nil

(c) *Outlays against the different plans:*

(i) Main sources of outlay in India, are balance from current revenue, public loans, small savings, railway contributions, external assistance and deficit financing.	3 minutes	nil
(ii) Two tables with exact figures, to be read out to the class, showing amounts raised from each source and the outlay made under each head.	3 minutes	Pie charts

(d) *Targets and achievements:*

(i) In the First Plan, 11 per cent increase in the national income was the target. 18 per cent increase was actually achieved.	2 minutes	Bar graphs
(ii) In Second Plan, 25 per cent increase was the target. 20 per cent increase achieved.	2 minutes	nil
(iii) In Third Plan, 25 per cent increase is the target.	2 minutes	nil
Table showing actual physical achievements in 2 plans to be read out.		Line graph

(e) *Comments on the plan:*

	<i>Time taken</i>	<i>Aids to be shown</i>
(i) Tendency towards Soviet Type Planning—is it desirable?	2 minutes	nil
(ii) Vehement criticism of policy of indirect taxation, deficit financing and external assistance.	2 minutes	nil

3RD PART

Summary—

(i) Objectives of the plan,		
(ii) Outlays and source of finance,		
(iii) Targets and achievements	3 minutes	nil
(iv) Comments.		
Total	45 minutes	

Assignment

(a) Model questions as follows:

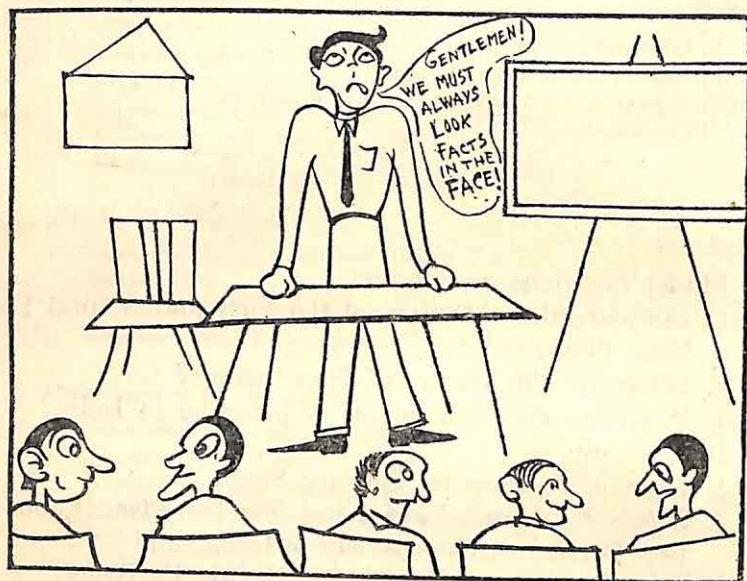
1. Compare the objectives of the First and Second Five Year Plans,
2. What are the sources of Plan finance?
3. What are the weak points of planning in India?

(b) Book references:

1. *Economic Planning* by Balwant Singh
2. *India's First, Second and Third Five Year Plans* (Publication Divisions), Government of India, and
3. *Indian Economic Policy and Development* by Bauer.

How a lecture should be delivered: For a lecturer who is new to his job, mastery of the subject matter and preparation of the lesson plan are not enough. He must develop and improve his skill in presentation. For this, it is necessary for him to rehearse repeatedly, what he is going to say. This would engender spontaneity of expression. Some lecturers write out their entire lecture almost in the form of an article which they read out to the class. This is not desirable as it keeps the eyes of the lecturer glued to this note, and, to some extent too, reduces communication between him and the audience. For it is a psychological fact that the extent of communication increases when we look at one another while speaking and decreases when the message is delivered in a

cold impersonal voice. Listening to a lecture which is read, the audience may feel that they are listening to a gramophone record or a tape-recorder. It is therefore essential that a good lecturer looks at his audience from time to time to convey his message to them. Some authorities suggest, that one of the methods that a young inexperienced lecturer may try, would be to divide his audience into a number of imaginary

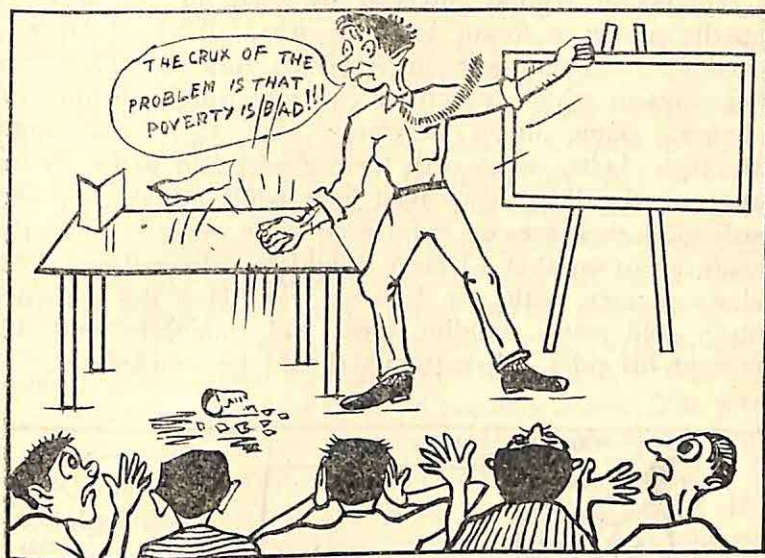


Types of Lecturers: 1. THE RIGID TYPE

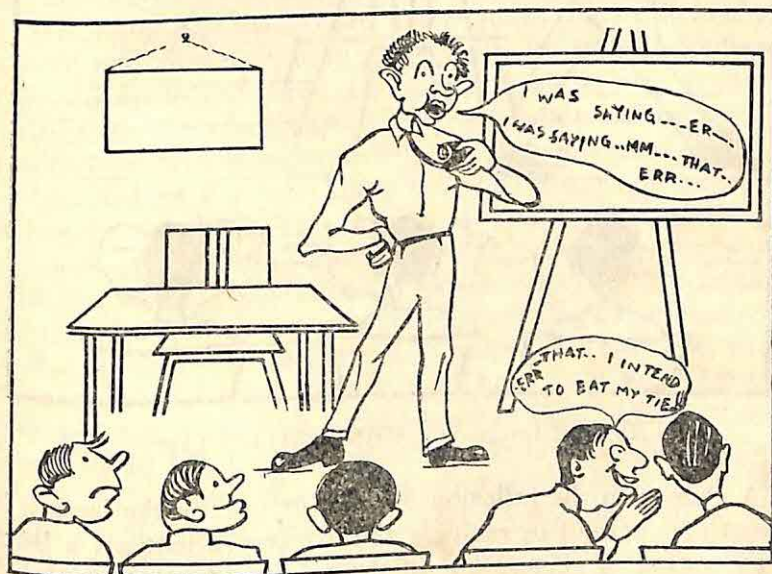
groups, e.g. by drawing squares in his mind's eye from the front to the back and from left to right, resulting in 9 squares in all. The speaker can then address himself to each group in turn, speaking now to one square, now to another, but always speaking to each square for some time. While this may be an extreme form of discipline, the lecturer should remember the need for looking at his audience and strive to do so at intervals.

While the lecturer can occasionally be dramatic in order to emphasise a certain point by gestures and inflexions of voice, he should not gesticulate or distract the attention of the audience excessively. There was a lecturer in Delhi, who

gave a series of talks on a fairly interesting subject. He knew his subject well and the whole series could have been most

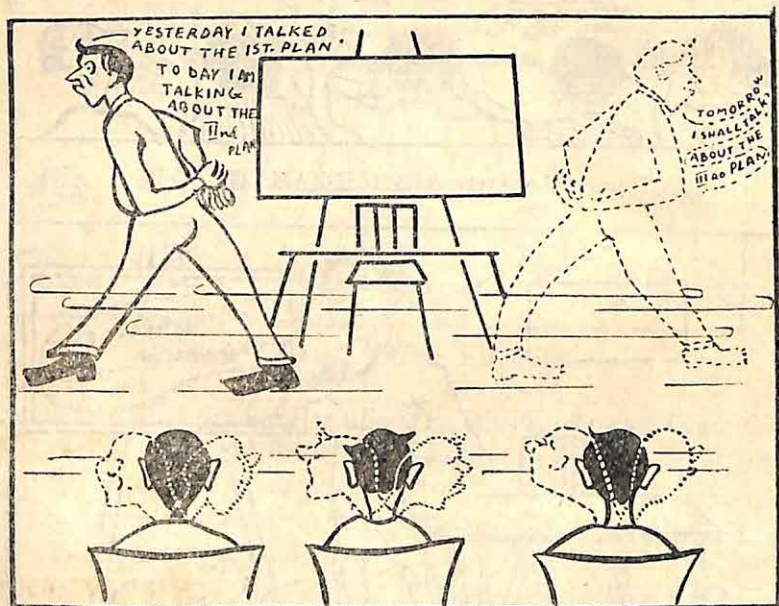


Types of Lecturers: 2. THE DRAMATIC TYPE



Types of Lecturers: 3. THE NERVOUS TYPE

interesting and useful; but, he marred it somewhat by his defective mode of delivery. Among other things, he punctuated his remarks at regular intervals by such an odd grimace that the audience forgot what he was talking about and waited for it to reappear, in breathless suspense. There are other ways in which a lecturer can unwittingly distract his audience. Some fidget nervously with their ties, some with their belts, some with their glasses and so on. Some may pace the floor like caged lions while others may nervously blink their eyes or indulge in some other eccentricity. This is not to say that a lecture should be delivered in a cold, lifeless manner with the lecturer transfixing the audience with a cold stare, standing erect and immobile, with his hands at his sides. All extremes should be avoided.



Types of Lecturers: 4. THE RESTLESS TYPE

A change in the inflexion of voice or pace of the lecture is sometimes helpful in reviving the listeners' attention: a brief interruption, a glance around the room and an interpolated remark by the lecturer may have the effect of breaking the

audience's tension. Examples can be cited how stress on certain words can add new significance to the word. Thus, for instance, if a certain word or a part of a sentence is pronounced in a louder voice, dynamic stress is produced e.g. 'Here changes *must* be brought about'. Certain words could be stressed at the end to emphasise the qualitative aspect of the stress e.g. 'We have had to wait for it for years', etc.

There are other points to note while delivering a lecture. The first thing is that it should be sufficiently loud for everyone to hear. Any lecturer can test this beforehand by going to his empty class-room and requesting his friends to sit right at the back and say whether they can hear his voice. Other important points are the pitch of voice and the pace of delivery. If a lecturer has delivered his lecture in a single pitch, it becomes monotonous. On the other hand, if it is delivered in a deliberate, sing-song voice, it becomes comic. The pitch should, therefore, be varied at intervals and the pace should not be more than 120 words per minute. All these can be tested by such modern appliances as tape-recorders. If a tape-recorder is not available, a friend can act as an observer and testify whether the lecturer is being too fast or too slow or whether he is sounding monotonous or comic.

Writing on the blackboard also requires some practice. He should not cover the board as he writes, so that his audience can simultaneously hear his speech and see words being written on the blackboard. This has certain advantages, as testified by psychologists, in helping the audience to grasp.

How to begin a lecture? There are several ways of beginning a lecture. It will depend on the personality of the lecturer. A good way to start a lecture will be to exchange a few words with the students on almost any subject that comes to mind—a topic of world news, sports, some interesting experience, etc. and connect it with the lecture to follow. For instance, when talking about foreign aid in the Third Five Year Plan, a lecturer may start with something like this: 'Did you read about the M.I.G. Deal with Russia in the morning Newspaper? What did you think of it? Will it affect our aid from America?' This would at once draw the trainees into conversation and establish that rapport between the teacher and the students which will help in making the lecture interesting. Apart from

anecdotes, remarks either connected with the subject or even unconnected with it, help to break the austere silence of the lecture hall and attract attention and interest immediately. The importance of humour in lectures can never be over-emphasised. Some of the World's greatest lecturers contrive to combine important material with abundant humour in their lectures. There is the story of a lecturer who wrote down a joke in his lecture notes, so that he could remember it and utter it at the right moment. One day the poor fellow discovered in the lecture hall that he had left his lecture notes behind. So he exclaimed in consternation 'Gentlemen, I have left my jokes behind'. This remark sounded so uproarously funny that it brought the house down and the lecturer was able to complete his lecture with the full co-operation of the audience.

The introduction, however, should not be too long. Moreover, the introduction should strengthen one's eagerness to hear what the speaker has to say about the subject. Very often, we meet speakers who ignore this rule in their desire to make the introduction as original and exciting as possible. They devote more care to the opening statement than to the body of the lecture, which means, of course, that the speech as a whole does not present a rising but a falling curb of interest for the audience.

What should be the normal duration of a lecture? There are no hard and fast rules concerning this. A good lecturer may hold his audience's interest in his subject for a much longer period than a bad one. We hear of the classic instances of Swami Vivekananda, who was given only 5 (five) minutes to speak in the Parliament of Religions, but his audience listened to him spellbound for over an hour. People are sometimes spellbound by the magnetic personality of political demagogues, parliamentary orators, religious leaders, writers, poets and other individuals and are eager to listen to them irrespective of the length of their speeches. But these are exceptional cases.

In class-room teaching, no lecturer should normally take more than one hour for his lecture. But to concentrate even for this period is not easy. In Community Development Institutions, it would not be desirable to lecture for more

than 40 to 45 minutes at a stretch, and even this should be interspersed with discussion.

In preparing a lecture, therefore, it may be well to organise it in several divisions, each division presentable for not more than 15 minutes of continuous expression. As each unit is completed, it may be punctuated by a question or discussion of 2 or 3 minutes. This should suffice not only to establish a close link with the listeners but also to reveal points which require further explanation. Little is gained by advancing when a breach in understanding has developed. This would also enable the lecturer to sense how the students are responding to what is being said. It is well to recount the techniques used by a great orator of classical antiquity—Mark Antony, who paused two or three times in between his great peroration to watch how the Roman audience was responding to this speech—

ANTONY. ‘—Bear with me;
My heart is in the coffin there with Caesar,
And I must pause till it come back to me.

1st CITIZEN. Methinks, there is much reason in his sayings.

2nd CITIZEN. If thou consider rightly of the matter,
Caesar has had great wrong.
He has, my masters!

3rd CITIZEN. I fear, there will a worse come in his place.

4th CITIZEN. Mark’d ye his words? He would not take the
crown;
Therefore, ‘its certain, he was not ambitious.

1st CITIZEN If it be found so, some will dear abide it.

2nd CITIZEN. Poor soul! his eyes are red as fire with weeping.

3rd CITIZEN. There’s not a nobler man in Rome than Antony.

4th CITIZEN. Now mark him, he begins again to speak.’

Mark Antony’s technique, as depicted by Shakespeare, is sure and sound. His final success in inflaming the audience, resulting in expulsion of Brutus and Cassius can be attributed to his being sensitive to the reactions of the audience.

To recapitulate what has been said above: a good lecturer should (a) cultivate certain good habits like looking the audience in the face, making sure that every one can hear

him and refraining from over-gesticulation and fidgeting; (b) control the pitch of his voice which should be varied from time to time and the speed of delivery which should be about 100 words to 120 words per minute to be checked by a tape-recorder; (c) invest his lecture with and, if possible, begin it with anecdotes or humour and (d) obtain audience-participation by pausing at regular intervals to ask or answer questions.

Lastly, a lecture should normally be divided into three parts. In the first part, the lecturer should tell his audience the number of points he is going to introduce in his lecture. These points can be written on the blackboard. Each point can then be elaborated with examples, ideas, opinions, etc. This constitutes the second part. The final section should be a summary of the lecture. This is a systematic method of delivering lectures and the audience has very little difficulty in taking down notes.

Mode of reasoning: The effectiveness of a lecturer also depends a great deal on the mode of reasoning, he uses. He may drive home a point either inductively or deductively. He may try to lead the audience to a conclusion by making use of analogy or the testimony of some authority. The particular mode of reasoning he will use, will depend on the subject matter and his mental make-up.

Induction and deduction: A lecturer dealing with community development or an allied subject, would do well to support his main points by abundant field illustrations. In doing this, he can make use of either the inductive or the deductive method. He may cite a number of illustrations to begin with and then inductively draw a general conclusion from them; or he may state a well-known principle and try to test its validity by applying it to instances in real life. People are better able to understand an abstract principle, only when it is tied up with a concrete situation. The use of the inductive or the deductive method is therefore particularly useful for an audience of this type. The only thing that a lecturer has to guard against when reasoning inductively or deductively, is to see that his illustrations are sufficient in number and representative in character, to warrant the conclusion he is trying to draw.

In abstract lectures, it would probably be better to start with the principle and then inductively prove its validity by applying it to village life. Take for instance, a statement like this—‘If the community development programme is not based on the felt needs of the people, it may not succeed.’ This is not a hypothesis, but a principle deduced from our experience in social work. How can this be validated? This can be validated by examples and case histories. Instances can be shown where programmes were thrust on the people by the Block authorities, either through over-enthusiasm or through official pressure resulting in abject failure. The reasons, of course, were that the people were not consulted, it was not their idea and the programme was not based on their felt needs and, hence, they were not very enthusiastic. To take another example; we start with the conclusion that there is lack of administrative co-ordination in the community development programme. The validity of this conclusion is then tested by such symptoms as duplication of work and antagonism among the departments. Conversely, if we start with the symptoms first, we would inductively arrive at the conclusion that there is not much administrative co-ordination. In subjects like ‘Philosophy and Objectives of Community Development’ or ‘Extension Method’ or ‘Co-operation’, the inductive and deductive methods of treatment become very useful. To give one last instance, in a subject like ‘Philosophy of Community Development’, we analyse the concept and state its programme aspect, method aspect, process aspect and movement aspect separately. We then apply these principles to certain instances to prove the validity of our statements. For instance, we try to establish our assertion that, the problems of rural life are inter-linked by showing that improvements in agriculture or in any other field, would require better education. Hence, an educational programme has to march in step with the other programmes. Similarly, the farmer cannot work unless he is fit throughout the year, and this means that a vigorous public health programme has to be launched. Therefore, we arrive at the conclusion that the problems of rural life are inter-linked and community development has to be a programme of all-sided development.

Analogy: The use of analogy as a tool of logic is well known.

One can establish a conclusion on the basis of comparison with similar experience elsewhere. If the conditions pertaining to the two situations can be shown to be identical, the analogy can be considered correct and the experience gained in one place, will be of use elsewhere.

In Community Development Institutions, analogy can be used in lectures for more than one reason. To prove a point is one reason, but this is not all. Sometimes an insight into the nature of the problem is gained as a result of analogy. In most cases analogy widens the vision. There was a B.D.O. who was extremely pessimistic about the future of community development in India when he came for training. After he had listened to lectures on similar developments in Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda, Jamaica, Mexico, Ceylon, Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines, he felt India had not fared so badly after all. His confidence in the movement as a consequence increased.

Testimony: The use of testimony is very old in human reasoning. It probably springs from the normal desire to shift the responsibility for a particular belief or action on some authority.

Sometimes, of course, it cannot be helped. We have to depend on the testimony of our doctor, for instance, when he prescribes some medicine for us, because we do not possess the knowledge to prove him wrong. Similarly, we often have to accept the word of a great scientist, particularly nowadays, since nobody else is at all acquainted with the subject.

Authorities, if they are accepted by the majority as such and considered to be unbiased, can be sparingly quoted. But a lecturer should concentrate more on supporting his arguments with independent reasoning, e.g. deduction or induction rather than testimony.

Responsibility of students: We have so far discussed the responsibility of a lecturer in making his lecture interesting and useful. But no lecturer can help a student, if he is inattentive. Lack of attention on the part of the student in the lecture hall may not be a serious problem in Western countries, but in India today, it has assumed serious proportions. It would not be far wrong to say that there is a growing tendency among our young students not to take lectures seriously.

In many universities, if students go to listen to a lecture, they do so with a view to obtaining a minimum percentage for attendance which the universities demand. In fact, many of our students do not at all utilise or depend on lectures. They try to pass their examinations by cramming model answer papers which are written by Professors and sold in thousands.

The students who come for training in Community Development Training Institutions have admittedly a more serious outlook. But even there, it is doubtful to what extent the lectures are utilised. The effectiveness of our lectures and their retention by our trainees will certainly increase if we devise tests and examinations on factual knowledge based on lectures. If the trainees know that they are going to be tested and that the questions will be based purely on lectures, their eagerness to listen, retain and assimilate the lectures will increase. This will be discussed more adequately in a later section.

Taking down lecture-notes: The usual way of retaining a lecture is by taking down notes. But note-taking usually suffers from two main defects:—

- (1) They are taken down verbatim,
- (2) They are hardly ever read again by the trainees.

Lots of things can be said against taking down lecture notes verbatim. In the first place, it is impossible for any normal student to take down every sentence that the lecturer says, because the speed of writing is much slower than the speed of speaking. This often results in long gaps which render the notes incomprehensible in many places.

Secondly, real knowledge can never be acquired by repeating what others say. The maxim that 'Only you can teach yourself' has much truth and can be applied here too.

In many cases, it has been ascertained that students have been able to reproduce word for word, what they have heard from the lecturer, but on cross-examination have shown a complete lack of understanding of the sense of what they were repeating. Lectures should not, therefore, be taken down verbatim not only because it is impossible to take down everything, but also because it hinders the acquisition of real knowledge. What a student should, therefore, do when

listening to a lecture, is to concentrate on the sense of what the lecturer is saying, rather than his exact words. Moreover, he must continually keep on summarising the lecturer's remarks and noting the summaries down in his own words and not in the lecturer's.

It will be convenient for the trainees to invent and use certain abbreviations which will be intelligible to them when they read the notes again and bring to their minds a chain of associations. Thus, 'DEV' may stand for 'Development' and 'D.C.' for Development Commissioner and so on.

If it is a well-arranged lecture, a student will have no difficulty in following the main lines of thinking or argument of the lecturer. Even if it is not a well-arranged lecture, the listener should try to re-arrange the lecturer's remarks, in his own mind and jot down the main points, so that on a second reading he can recall the substance of the lecture.

Every lecture should be read again and again by the students. If necessary, the lecture should be re-written by the students during their leisure time. Only thus, can one get the cream of the lecture.

One last point. In our training centres, after every lecture, usually some time remains for discussion. It is surprising how a lecturer is sometimes harassed by a student's irrelevant questioning. Sometimes, questions are asked which have either already been dealt with by the lecturer or are right off the subject. This can be avoided if a student, when taking down notes, writes also in the margin, the question which he would like to ask against a particular remark made by the lecturer. This would at least confine the question to the lecture and avoid irrelevance.

Lecture evaluation: For continuous improvement in the content and method of presentation, lectures should be evaluated. Now, who should evaluate them—the lecturer himself, his colleagues or the head of the Institution? Self-evaluation, if it can be performed objectively, is perhaps the best of the three. But whatever formulas of evaluation a lecturer may apply, his subjective bias is bound to insinuate itself. Evaluation by colleagues would probably engender greater objectivity, but unless this is done with the express sanction of the lecturer, he may feel considerable resentment.

Many institutions encourage students to evaluate lectures. Direct evaluation by students has certain advantages, of course. They can fill up the evaluation sheet containing a number of points, but direct evaluation of a lecture does not mean just a vague comment about whether the lecture was interesting or useful. Several points, have to be examined, e.g. mode of delivery, content, utility, etc. This can only be effected scientifically by people who have given some thought to the subject, such as Instructors and Principals of training institutions. Students, of course, can say whether they like the lecture or not. This can only provide a guide point, but we have found from our experience that students often make wild remarks, depending very much on their moods and their likes or dislikes for a particular lecturer. We would therefore advocate, that along with self-evaluation, the head of the institution should also evaluate the lectures of the staff. The evaluation by the Principal or the Director should be done in a friendly manner. It should be discussed immediately after the lecture with the lecturer, the main purpose being to help him. The lecturer can retain the evaluation remarks made by the Principal or Director. The success of this will, of course, depend on the team-work and understanding that exists between the head of the institution and the staff.

A model evaluation proforma is appended below along with the actual evaluation of a lecture. The name of the lecturer has been deliberately omitted.

NAME OF THE LECTURER — Mr. X.
 SUBJECT — Principles and Philosophy of Extension.
 TYPE OF LECTURE — Conceptual
 METHOD OF REASONING — Mainly deductive.

<i>Points made</i>	<i>Method of treatment of the subject matter under each point</i>	<i>Type of reasoning used to establish each point</i>
1. Definition of Extension	Ideas arranged in descending order of importance.	—
2. Objectives	Horizontally arranged, all ideas being of equal importance.	—

<i>Points made</i>	<i>Method of treatment of the subject matter under each point</i>	<i>Type of reasoning used to establish each point</i>
3. Principles on which Extension work should be based	Points arranged in descending order.	Deductive reasoning
4. Qualities of an Extension worker	Points arranged in ascending order of importance.	Deductive reasoning and analogy (example: 'a compass is to a ship what planning is to a worker')

Presentation:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Did the lecturer try to connect the present lecture with the preceding one? | No. This was the first lecture. |
| 2. Did the lecturer use adequate examples and case histories? | He illustrated (a) principle of felt need, (b) principle of doing work through traditions. |
| 3. Was the lecture interesting? | Yes. He made use of humour to make an abstract subject interesting. |
| 4. Did he use any Audio-Visual Aids? Could Audio-Visual Aids be used at all in this lecture? | No. Definitions and principles could have been given in Flannel graphs and 'Suspense Charts'. |
| 5. Was his reasoning good? | Yes, but efficacy of theory and practice should have been discussed in greater detail. |
| 6. Did he divide his lecture in 3 parts in accordance with lesson plan? | He did two, but did not summarise. |

Participation:

- | | |
|---|---------------------------|
| 1. Did he provide informal atmosphere and elicit participation from the trainees? | Yes. |
| 2. Did he evoke interest or participation by asking questions? | No, it was not necessary. |
| 3. Were any important issues raised by the trainees? | No. |
| 4. Could he satisfy the audience regarding their questions? | Yes. |

Mode of delivery:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Could everyone hear him? | Yes. |
| 2. Did he speak too fast? | No, just right. |
| 3. Did he repeat too much? | No, just right. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 4. Did he distract attention by his manner or dress? | No, his manner was quite sober, but not wooden. |
| 5. How long did he speak? | About 55 mts. |
| 6. Did he speak at a stretch? | No, but he should tell his audience not to ask questions at random. |
| 7. Did he speak with confidence or fumble? | With confidence. |
| 8. Did he look at each member of the audience? | He should a little more. |

Follow up:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------|
| 1. Did he give any references? | Yes. |
| 2. Did he give any assignments? | No. |

Conclusion: Some questions still remain for discussion. For instance, if a series of lectures are being delivered, should these lectures follow in close succession—say, every consecutive day, or should they be widely dispersed? It is doubtful if there can be any hard and fast rules. It would very much depend on the subject. For instance, if lectures are arranged on every consecutive day, on subjects which require assimilation of a large number of technical facts and abstruse ideas, it may not give sufficient time to the learner to assimilate the matter presented in individual lectures. It would be preferable if they get sufficient time to think and carry out further studies on what they had heard in a particular lecture.

On the other hand, an interval of say 20 days, would be too long and would result in the students losing their link and interest in the matter presented in two successive lectures, on a particular subject. On an average, therefore, at least 2 to 3 days should be allowed to elapse between lectures.

Finally, apart from one lecture being closely linked with another, should there be any link between the lectures delivered by one lecturer and those delivered by another? In a normal college with Arts and Science branches, this may not be possible. But in institutions for community development this is not only possible, but desirable. Our idea would be to link up all knowledge on community development, so that when a trainee leaves the institution he goes away with an integrated outlook on community development. This can be easily done. We can start, for instance, an entire course of training with a symposium on, let us say, the Village Agri-

cultural Production Plan. All the lecturers in a training institution can be members of the symposium, each lecturer developing or dilating on that part of the plan which concerns his subject. The Director of the institution, for instance, can give the general background of the Village Agricultural Production Plan, the recommendations of the Government, etc. He can be followed by the Agriculture Instructor who would describe the technical work in connection with agriculture which has to be done by village leaders and extension workers e.g. selection of good seeds, application of manures and irrigation water, seed treatment, etc. The lecturer on Co-operation can follow him by telling the trainees the specific responsibilities of Co-operative Societies in supplying seeds, manures, fertilisers. The lecturer on Panchayat or Local Government can similarly describe the duties of the Panchayats in formulating the plan and carrying it out. The lecturer on Extension and Social Education, in his turn, can describe the educational work that has to be done to create the will for planning among the villagers. Finally, the lecturer on Rural Sociology can tell the trainees something about the sociological implications of the plan as well as about how to collect data, conduct interviews etc.

This symposium then would be a very convenient way of introducing a subject by each lecturer. From this starting point, each lecturer can develop his entire lecture course, referring again and again to the Village Agricultural Production Plan which would form the common link among all the lectures in that particular course. The course can end with a closing symposium of panel discussion in which each lecturer can summarise his lectures with reference to the original theme. In this way the trainees are enabled to get a comprehensive and synthetic view of the Village Agricultural Production Plan and the role of different agencies engaged in it. In this way also, the entire course can be linked up.

*Section II**AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS*

Audio-visual aids can be defined as those tools and devices, by the use of which communication of ideas between persons and groups is helped.

These devices are termed as audio-visual aids, since about 85 per cent to 90 per cent of the sense stimuli enter our perception, as has already been stated, through the eye and the ear.

The significance of the word 'aid' should be noted. It means that these audio-visual devices are not teaching methods in themselves: rather, they are 'aids' to one or other of the main teaching methods, such as a lecture or a group discussion or a demonstration.

We can, of course, visualise a lecturer or a group leader, flashing a number of pictorial symbols before an audience or a group, without any comments, either preceding or following or accompanying their showing. If the visual symbols are sufficiently meaningful, they may not require any verbal explanation. People can understand their message at a glance. But such visual symbols, where they are used, can have only limited application. People, in general, cannot acquire systematic and coherent knowledge by seeing visual symbols alone.

In fact, audio-visual aids are mainly used with lectures and discussion. By tying up an idea in a lecture with a specific audio-visual aid, a lecturer can drive home his point more effectively. The audience can understand better, what he is trying to describe in words, when they see the fact, the idea or the situation being depicted through a film or a flash card or a chart.

TYPES OF A.V. AIDS AND THEIR APPLICATION

Modern audio-visual aids can be conveniently divided into two categories—(a) those which require for their presentation, some mechanical means, and (b) those which do not.

In the former category, we can name films, film strips, slides, radio-talks, recorded speeches, etc. In the latter category can be included simple visual aids like flash cards, charts, graphs, etc.

Mechanical visual aids are usually called projected aids. As they are usually projected on a screen in a darkened or semi-darkened room, most external suggestions are cut off. The students see only the brilliant white light illuminating the screen and they are not distracted by anything else in the room. This may be one of the reasons why all projected visual aids, compel greater attention and impress the mind more, than non-projected aids.

But projected aids, are expensive and in a country like India, difficult to get. Projected aids also suffer from some other disadvantages.

Non-projected aids, which are inexpensive and can be made to order, have at present greater possibilities in this country.

Besides these mechanical and non-mechanical aids, every country has certain traditional media of communication. Folk songs, folk dramas, puppet shows and dances, have not only entertained the common people in every land throughout the ages, but have often exercised a powerful educational influence on them.

There are a large number of audio-visual aids in use, in advanced countries. Some of them, like television, will not be available in underdeveloped countries for some time. Some of the others, may not be effective for our purpose.

We shall therefore, discuss in the following pages only those aids, which have been tried, tested and proved to be effective, for both sophisticated and village audiences.

PROJECTED AIDS

Of all the projected aids, the film is by far the most popular. Everything that it depicts moves and appears to live. It combines reality and drama. For this reason, it has the widest appeal among all classes of people irrespective of age.

But whether the film is educationally effective or not, depends on one or two factors. The most important thing is that the film to be shown must be realistic. Secondly, it must have enough detail and instructional material to be of educative value. And, thirdly, it must be easily available.

In India, particularly, the conditions mentioned above are hard to obtain. Documentary films are few and although they may be of high artistic value, their educational effective-

ness is doubtful. Most of them have been produced with an eye to mass appeal to publicise government programmes. They do not contain enough educational material to be of value to extension workers. Moreover, they are hard to obtain. For this reason, for some time to come, films may not be the most practicable audio-visual aids in India. Extension workers would do well in utilising other, more available and less expensive aids.

Where good films are available, they should be used, of course. For films enjoy certain advantages which other visual aids do not possess. Wherever anything is to be learnt from movements, processes or actions, the film is undoubtedly the best medium. One can show the colour and texture of weaving by means of good, coloured slides. But weaving itself is action and can be best learnt by actually witnessing the weavers at work or by seeing a film. Similarly, an improved implement can be exhibited by means of a slide or a chart. But the method demonstration involving its use, can be best shown either by witnessing the demonstration in the field or by seeing the film.

Secondly, a film can provide and easily reproduce records of an operation. A highly skilled teaching demonstration which cannot be repeated easily can be filmed, thus, furnishing a demonstration on celluloid that can be used again and again. The best example is a medical operation. Medical students can easily learn by repeatedly using a film, a highly intricate medical operation. Thirdly, motion pictures can enlarge or reduce the actual size of an object, thereby making presentation easier.

A good film can increase factual knowledge and teaching skill, develop attitudes, and even change opinions. Research has discovered that the use of effective and appropriate films results in more rapid learning and better utilisation of what is learnt. Instructional films can also stimulate other learning activities like voluntary reading, thinking and even problem-solving. Films, however, have greatest influence when their contents reinforce a student's previous knowledge, attitudes and motivations; they are of least influence when previous knowledge is inadequate and when the film content is antagonistic and contrary enough to excite attitude and

motivation. If we are showing films on extension work in America, they will have less educative effect on an Indian audience than if we show similar films on extension work in India, because of the lack of knowledge of an Indian audience of American conditions.

Other advantages of the film are that sight in motion is combined with various sounds, to act simultaneously upon two senses. They can also telescope both time and space during the show. Past events stretching over great lengths of time, as well as distant lands, can all be assembled in the film and shown in 10 or 12 minutes. This may, of course, create some erroneous impression, especially among children about the concept of time and space and the teacher should certainly remove the misconception.

The technique of taking films has undergone tremendous improvements, so that we can study the small part of a larger unit through a close-up film or a detailed study of movement, filmed by a slow-motion camera.

How to use the film for teaching: Although the film has many advantages over verbal instruction, it can never replace the teacher completely. The latter will still be required for explaining and devising the activities that would grow out of the interest roused on seeing the film. Instructional techniques built into the film substantially increase the instructional effectiveness of a film. Students will learn more if they are instructed in what to look for in the film and then examined on what they have learnt. The extent to which a group will learn from a film, will depend on the leadership of the Instructor who uses the film. In many circumstances, the morale and motivation fostered by interested teachers may determine the success or failure of the films shown to the class.

How to use films: As most of the films used by educational institutions in this country, have to be secured from foreign sources, they should be previewed before they are shown. In previewing, the following points should be looked into:

- (a) does the film, under preview, contribute more effectively to understanding a particular fact or situation, than some other aid?
- (b) Is it properly suited to the need, age and abilities of the students?

- (c) Is its mechanical quality satisfactory?

Before showing the film, the following things should be done:

- (a) discussing with the audience what is already known about the subject of the film and what might be expected from seeing the film.
- (b) Working out a questionnaire which may be answered partially by the film.
- (c) Asking different students to pay particular attention to sections of the film which answer certain questions.

After the film is shown, the teacher can:

- (a) divide the class into small groups and if the film has posed a problem and has not given an answer, discuss with the group how to solve the problem,
- (b) take the class on a field trip for which the film was presented as preparation,
- (c) give a written or oral check test covering the major points in the film.

Other hints for the instructors are as follows:

Before presenting the picture, the students should be prepared for the problem-solving approach. In a simple clear-cut manner the problem is to be identified and the students told what the film will show and how they are to benefit by it. If they realise that their knowledge will be tested at the completion of the film, usually their interest will become more acute, their keenness of observation greater and their ability to learn more effective. Then step by step the attention of the students should be called to all important points in the film. Each step should be presented briefly and in the proper learning sequence. The presentation should proceed in a direct path from what the students know to what they do not know. After the showing of the film, the students should be asked to explain the different points in it. The Instructor should also know in previewing whether other audio-visual material can be utilised to render the films additionally effective. Perhaps, some duplicated material should be given to the class before and after the showing. The blackboard, during the preview may be used for listing one or more items

viz. (a) what to look for in the film, (b) problems noted in the film, (c) list of questions to be answered by the film. In addition the teacher can bring before the class several points he may have noted which are peculiar to the specific film. In discussion after the showing, the teacher should privately evaluate the effect of the screening in terms of student-learning. Is another showing of the same film—desirable? Did some incorrect notice and anticipated misunderstanding come through after all? Regarding follow-up activities, there must be co-operation between the students and the teacher. Should there be further reading, written reports, field trips, other related films?

But in spite of all these advantages, the use of films in Community Development Institutions, for the reasons noted above, will be limited for some time to come. Its worst drawback is its expensiveness. Even if a film becomes readily available, it can never compete on this score with other audio-visual aids like film strips and slides.

The film, can at best rouse interest in a subject. It has got to be followed up by other activities. On one occasion, showing of an animated cartoon by Walt Disney depicting the dangers of excreting in the fields, followed by an exhibition of models of dug-well latrines, so impressed the villagers that they evinced marked interest in the matter. A subsequent follow-up resulted eventually in saturating the village with dug-well latrines.

Certain follow-up activities can be done in the class-room. For instance, if there is a good film on 'How to conduct a group discussion', the trainees can be asked immediately after the film show, to conduct a discussion on the lines they had seen on the screen. The advantage of the film is that it can be shown time and again to drive home points which may not be remembered after the first showing. The film is, therefore, a very effective medium for building up skill among our trainees in certain procedures and operations e.g., how to conduct method demonstration, group discussions, case studies, etc.

One final comment on showing films in our training centres. Most of our training centres show the films in the afternoons, sometimes days after the subjects were discussed in the class.

This results in a break in the link between the lesson and the film show. Actually a film should be built into the lesson. A documentary film hardly takes more than 10 to 12 minutes to show. This can be done either before or immediately after the lecture, thereby maintaining the link between the lesson and the film. Actually it would be better to show the film before the lecture, so that there can be some discussion on the film itself immediately afterwards. In fact, the lecturer can make this discussion the starting point of his lecture.

Film Strip: A film related to the subject being taught, packing a lot of information and capable of being shown repeatedly at desired speeds, is the best audio-visual aid. But such films are rare in this country. Those that exist are not easily available. Moreover, they have to be returned soon and repeated showings for assimilation of the information may not be feasible. Willy-nilly, therefore, we have to fall back on other less expensive audio-visual aids, both projected and non-projected, which when combined will serve the purpose of teaching.

Among the projected aids, next to the film, the film strip is the most useful. The film strip enjoys a number of technical advantages over the film. In the first place, it is much less expensive than the film. It can be home produced and made to order by any educational institution which possesses a 35 mm. camera. The film-strip projector is not bulky and is easy to handle; lastly the speed of the motion picture depends on the speed at which the pictures were taken by the movie camera. Once taken, it is fixed and projection cannot be slowed down and speeded up by the projectionist to suit his educational requirement. This drawback is avoided in film-strip projectors. The strips are projected on the screen and can be kept suspended there for much longer periods than even the slowest movie film taken by a film camera. Moreover, any particular still film shown once, can again be projected back on to the screen by manipulating the knob of the film-strip projector. This makes it possible for the teacher to linger on any picture frame projected through a film-strip projector and carry on a discussion on it simultaneously. This is not possible with a movie film.

A long film-strip, consisting of 100 frames weighs only a

few ounces and can be carried in the pocket. It is unbreakable unlike the lantern slides.

Where and how to show film strips: A film strip like a movie film can be shown to depict a sequence of events, a process or even a story. It serves all the purposes of flash cards, but for a bigger audience. It generates more interest than the flash cards, because it is projected with the light switched off or dimmed and all other distractions cut out. This heightens the dramatic effect in a way, which no flash card can match. The laying of a demonstration plot, involving let us say, the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation can be very conveniently shown through a film strip. From the laying of the seed-bed up to the harvesting of the crop—all the different stages can be photographed by a 35 mm. camera and easily made into a film strip. This can then be projected on the screen and discussion carried on during the showing. Because of its inexpensiveness in production, the film strip can certainly be made to impart much more detailed information than a movie film on the same subject. In our example above, the film can certainly show better than the film strip, aspects of the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation which involve motion, e.g. line sowing, use of paddy weeder and seed-drill, etc. But the film strips can give more detailed information about the height of the raised seed-bed, the type of manure used, the spacing of plants, the type of implement used, etc. The film strip should be built into the lesson or discussion. For this, repeated previewing may be necessary, specially if the film strip has been acquired or purchased from outside. Certain key frames which impart detailed study and explanation should be noted. Worthwhile follow-up student activities e.g. reading, discussion, making special reports should be planned ahead, as in the case of films.

The interest of the students can be increased by asking questions on the subject the film strip covers. Before showing the film strip, a number of queries may be asked or listed on the blackboard and the final showing then becomes the means of verifying or answering the questions. The trainees may be asked to operate the projector. The film strip can be used during the first part of the period and enough time can be left for discussion. If showings are left to the latter part of a

period, discussion is often omitted. As mentioned above, one of the advantages of the film strip is that if questions arise concerning the frames which have been seen, they can be turned back and reviewed. On some occasions, students may be encouraged to jot down what they see, read and hear during the showing, as film strips do not need to be shown in total darkness and there is usually enough light for note-taking.

Let also the students ask each other, questions about the film strips they have just seen. The students may be given assignments to write down several main points studied in the film strips. They may be asked to go to the library to find out additional information and report back to the class. They may be asked to evaluate the film strip and indicate how they would improve it and make suggestions on how it might be used with future groups. If a case-history is being shown through the film strips, the showing can be suspended at a crucial point and the students may be asked to complete the story or suggest solutions from the facts already known. The remainder of the strip can then be presented to verify the answer.

If necessary, the entire film strip can be reshown. But often it is not necessary to show the entire film strip, but only certain frames, for further understanding. This can be done easily with the film strip.

Lastly, when presenting a film strip, sufficient time should be allowed for the students to read the title of the film strip. When the subject is complex, the principal ideas can be stressed and the film strip reshown.

Slides: With the advent of the film strip, slides are becoming obsolete. But slides still possess one or two technical advantages over film strips. Because of the method of production, the sequence of pictures in film strips cannot be changed once taken. Slides however, can be arranged in any order by the teacher who uses them, for teaching purposes. He can use the full set of slides or can select only a few slides for his use. Moreover, a slide can be projected on the screen for a much longer period than the film strip. Moreover, the production of slides is easier than that of film strips as they can be made by hand, on glass or cellophane paper.

Slides can be used to present single ideas as in posters or a string of ideas as in stories, in which case a number of slides have to be prepared, arranged in sequence and presented in regular order.

As slides are usually home-made, the teacher knows their contents and preview is not necessary. Assignments for the students are similar to what has been noted above for film strips.

Epidiascope: The epidiascope is probably the most useful among the projected aids, which an Indian Educational Institution can use. Any non-transparent pictures like maps, pictures, cut-outs from books, photographs, charts, diagrams, coloured post-cards and even flash cards of a suitable size, can be projected on the screen through the epidiascope. The author has on several occasions profitably and dramatically used a large number of coloured cartoons prepared according to our direction to show the process of group discussion to large audiences. These cartoons are flashed on the screen and enlarged thereby by projecting them through the epidiascope.

This medium has the greatest flexibility and can be used in any situation.

NON-PROJECTED VISUAL AIDS

Blackboard: The blackboard is probably the most flexible among the non-projected aids. Its uses are limited only by the extension worker's imagination. The teacher can summarise the main points of his talk, write down key-words for emphasis, sketch diagrams of such things as an irrigation system or crop rotation, draw pictures of people and animals to add interest to a talk, develop a story or a lesson, point by point. He can add segments to charts, maps or outlines at the right time—causing students to concentrate for that moment on the ideas or facts involved. He may even use the blackboard for displaying other audio-visual aids, e.g. charts, maps, graphs, posters, etc.

In fact, the blackboard in the hands of a teacher with some artistic skill can combine in itself practically all the benefits to be derived from other non-projected aids.

The blackboard can also be effectively utilised as a two-way channel of communication between the teacher and the

taught. Frequently, the suggestions of the students can be written on the blackboard at random as they are presented. Then they can be reorganised into some kind of a system while all look on and participate. This enables everybody to follow the talk and the ensuing discussion, from point to point as ideas are exchanged. The very versatility of the chalkboard or blackboard is a strong argument in its favour.

A teacher also uses a blackboard for noting new words and difficult terminology.

In introducing a film, a member of the class may go to the blackboard and write questions which the class expects the film to answer. In an adult education group, the blackboard member can list the problems on the blackboard and focus attention as the discussion proceeds. The blackboard can also serve as a place for displaying other visual samples, such as, charts, graphs, cartoons and even flannel graphs.

The blackboard then can be used primarily for—(a) illustrating facts and ideas often with the help of sketches, maps, diagrams and other visual symbols, (b) presenting difficult terminology, rules, definitions, key-words, important ideas, outlines, summaries and classifications, (c) providing an efficient medium for student demonstration and practice and (d) displaying a wide variety of materials ranging from daily assignments, questions and examples to achievements, records and materials that might otherwise appear on the bulletin board.

How to use blackboard: Most teachers use the blackboard; but few in Community Development Institutions try to use it with imagination or exploit its myriad possibilities as an audio-visual medium.

One of the first things that should be checked before using a blackboard, is lighting. Poor or even dazzling light, if reflected on the blackboard, may render the letters illegible to students sitting in certain corners of the room. This should therefore be tested before the class commences. Another point to note is that the blackboard should be about 8 to 10 feet away from the nearest row of students. The best thing for a lecturer to do before the commencement of a lecture is to verify in the empty class-room, whether the letters are legible from every angle and level.

Actually, there should be a regular plan of blackboard work, before presenting a lesson to the class. This can be incorporated in the lesson plan and a new teacher can rehearse his blackboard work along with the lesson he is preparing.

In Community Development or Panchayati Raj Training Centres, a lecturer can begin his lecture by conveniently listing the main points on the blackboard. This would enable the trainees to follow his lecture effectively. Or he can pose a question to his students.

While writing on the blackboard, it is better to keep silent; otherwise the lecturer would be addressing the blackboard and not the audience. Another thing to remember is that only statements that are brief and to the point should be written. Covering the blackboard with too much material at one time would make it crammed and clumsy thereby confusing the students.

A blackboard may be used for drawing charts and diagrams, but only simple drawings should be drawn; complex drawings would have a clumsy effect.

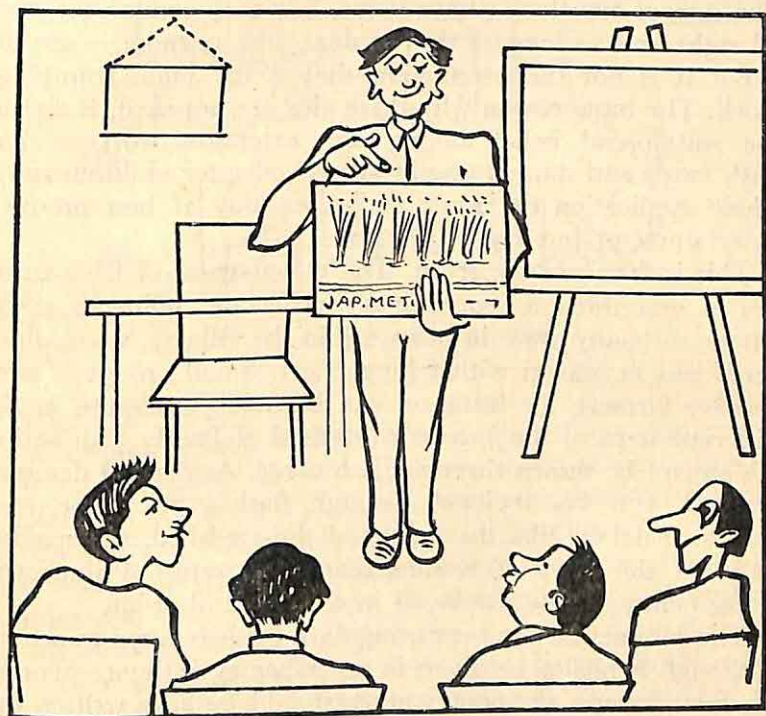
In India, blackboards are still black. But in the United Kingdom and the United States of America, black has been replaced by either yellow or green. Research has discovered that blue chalk on a yellow board, causes less strain on the eye and adds to the general cheerfulness of the class-room. In Scotland, yellow chalk on an olive-green surface is used.

The greatest utility of the blackboard, apart from its versatility is probably its availability. It is an ever-present piece of furniture in any class-room. For its use, no technical knowledge or high artistic skill is necessary. No adjustments are required and there is no wastage of time in darkening rooms, as in the case of some projected aid.

Flannel graphs and Flash cards: Among the non-projected audio-visual aids, flannel graphs and flash cards, have recently acquired great popularity among extension workers in Western countries. They have been used in the class-room as well as in the field, in a wide variety of situations. The flannel graph, for instance, due to its flexibility, has been utilised in the United States, by army authorities, business organisations as well as school teachers. But unfortunately in India, in

spite of the wide applicability of these two aids and particularly their applicability in village situations, our extension workers have not taken much advantage of them.

One reason for this, may be our dependence on outside agencies for the production of these aids. Many of our workers feel that the production of flash cards and flannel graphs requires a high degree of skill and no one except a finished artist can make them. But this is not strictly true. An accom-



FLASH CARD

plished artist may certainly attain a high quality of production, but any one with the slightest ability to draw or use colours, can make and imaginatively use them on a village audience.

(a) *Flash Cards*: Let us consider flash cards first. These are cards which when presented before a group in proper sequence tell a complete story. Each card is about 10—12" size which

is flashed before a group or class to bring home an idea. The message has to be brief and to the point.

Now there are two types of flash cards. The first type, consists of drawings, photographs and diagrams as they appear in reality. This type is comparatively more difficult to produce, and may require, though not always, the services of an artist. But the other type can be drawn by a schoolboy. They contain symbolic human figures looking like match-sticks, which can be drawn with a few straight lines and dots. The figures may look unattractive, but they convey the idea all right and so long as that is done, the purpose is served.

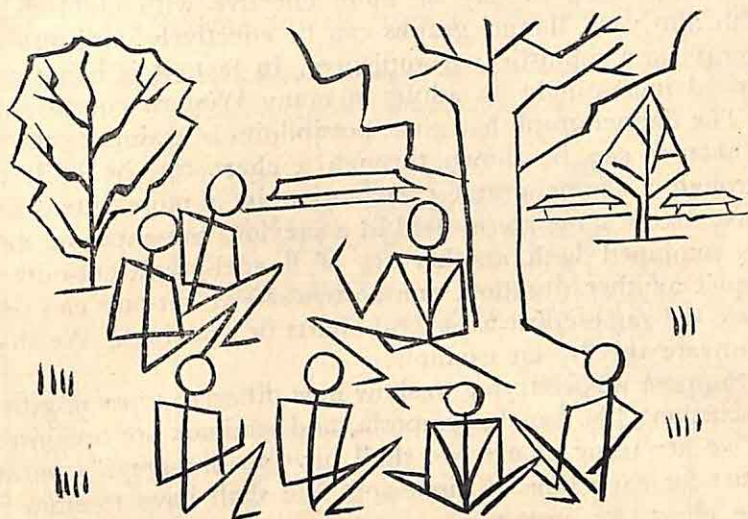
But it is not the production that is the main stumbling block. The basic reason why these aids are not used, is due to the widespread belief among our extension workers that flash cards and flannel graphs are effective for children only. Their application on adult audiences may at best produce entertainment, but not education.

This is far from the truth. The effectiveness of flash cards lies in describing a sequence of events and telling a story. There are many areas in our work in the villages, where flash cards can be shown with telling effect. Small groups of progressive farmers, for instance, can be made interested in the different steps of the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation which can be shown through flash cards. Any 'rural demonstration', can be depicted through flash cards. Moreover, technical details like the height of the seed-bed, the spacing between the rows of seedlings and diagrams of improved implements, can be displayed in a sequential order.

The commentary in presenting flash cards is very important. Although it has to be given in an informal, intimate manner to small groups, the commentary should be fully written out and thoroughly rehearsed.

In our training centres, flash cards, like other audio-visual aids, have a double application. In the first place, trainees, particularly the Gram Sevaks and the S.E.Os. must be shown how to prepare and use flash cards. Secondly, the teaching staff in these institutions can impart some of their lessons through these flash cards. Although for big audiences, as we have in our training centres, film strips which serve the same purpose as flash cards, may be more suitable, flash cards can

be used to explain certain technical topics on which good film strips are not available.



MATCH-STICK FIGURES

(b) *Flannel graphs:*

A flannel graph or flannel board as it is sometimes called, is more flexible and can generate more interest than flash cards, if prepared and shown with imagination. It consists of a piece of flannel spread across a board and a number of cut-outs placed on the flannel board at appropriate places, during a talk or discussion. As the flannel can be spread on any standing object anywhere, and as the whole device can be carried in a small envelope, the flannel graph can be shown as easily in an interior village as in a modern classroom.

Its capacity for building up suspense is its chief advantage. The whole picture can be built up bit by bit, as in a jig-saw puzzle by sticking bits and pieces of the picture on the flannel cloth. As the cut-outs are pasted on sandpaper, they adhere to the flannel as if glued to it.

Obviously, the flannel graph is very effective with children. Child audiences await with bated breath not only the outcome of the story, but to see also how the picture will even-

tually take shape. This will also be true of illiterate villagers, to some extent, and undoubtedly with tribals.

But although it may be more effective with children or with illiterates, flannel graphs can be effectively used also on literate and sophisticated audiences. In fact, it is being employed increasingly on adults in many Western countries.

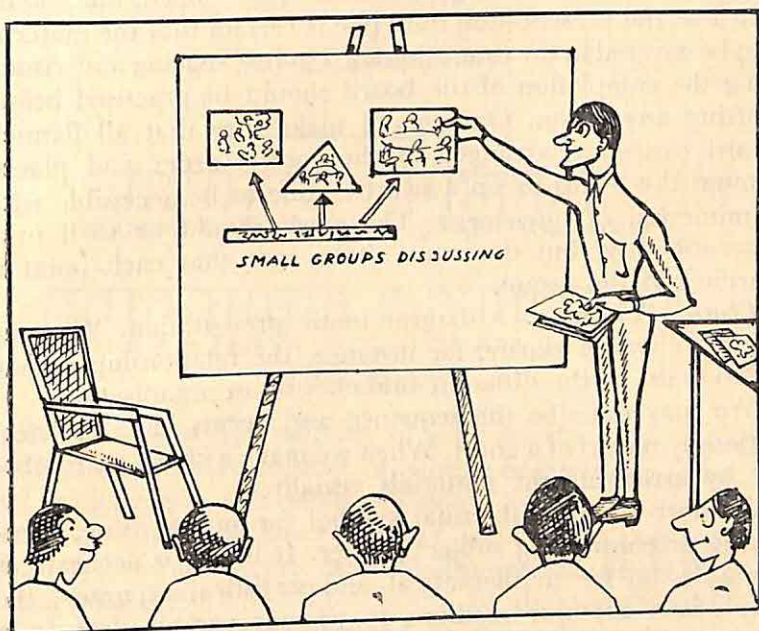
The flannel graph has great possibilities in training centres. Whatever can be shown through a chart can be built up through a flannel-graph presentation in a more interesting way. As the same pieces used in a previous presentation, may be combined with another set of flannel-graph cut-outs to depict another situation, one or two sets of cut-outs can produce the same effect as several charts or drawings. We shall illustrate this by an example.

Suppose we are trying to show how different types of group discussions, like panels, symposia, and seminars are organised. If we are using charts, we shall have to prepare a separate chart for each type of discussion. We shall have to show in one chart, for instance, a small group of people facing a large audience, indicating by arrows how the discussion would start at first among the small group constituting the panel, and after some time, how it would be taken up by the larger group. In the case of seminar discussion, we shall have to show in a chart how a steering committee during the plenary session does its business, and how the small groups work separately. We are to show in the same way how the symposium and the workshop discussions take place.

But, if we are trying to show the same thing through flannel-graph presentation, we can economise by using common figures and the common sitting arrangements again and again when describing different discussion methods. For instance, cut-outs, showing a small group of people facing a large group in a panel discussion, may be used again when showing how a seminar works by only adding the caption 'Steering Committee' under the picture of the small group constituting the panel. Thus, through flannel-graph presentation, we can sometimes eliminate the need for drawing the same or similar types of pictures again and again.

A flannel-graph presentation, because of its inherent dramatic possibilities, can be invested with considerable

humour. There is the story of an imaginative Social Education Organiser who prepared a flannel graph on the necessity of eating fruits and vegetables. By cleverly placing coloured pictures of potatoes, brinjals, melons, bananas, sugar-cane,



FLANNEL GRAPH

etc. at right places he built up a bull and called it 'Vegetabull' with the comment that if we take all these vegetables we would be as strong as the bull in the picture, which drew a roar of laughter from the audience. His presentation was certainly that of an advertising agent selling an idea amusingly.

In economics, geography and business classes, statistical information and numerical relationships can be easily and quickly presented by flannel-board techniques. A pie chart showing the outlays in different sectors, on let us say, the Third Five Year Plan, can be cut into pieces and rebuilt again on the flannel board during a lecture. In many instances, ideas that must be represented often are specially

suitable for flannel-board presentation and are developed or expanded as required.

Flannel boards, like flash cards, require detailed written guides. The flannel-board material should be prepared around this guide. After the material has been developed, one should rehearse the presentation until one is certain that the material can be covered in the time allotted. Timing, spacing and visualising the completion of the board should be practised before starting any lesson. One should make sure that all flannel-board cards are arranged in the correct order and placed around the board or on a nearby table to be accessible with a minimum of movement. The cards should be used in a dramatic way, but one must make sure that each point is clarified to the group.

Charts: A chart is a diagrammatic presentation. We may draw a chart to clarify, for instance, the relationship among individuals, or the different branches of an organisation.

We may describe the sequence and events in a historical period by means of a chart. When we make a chart, we symbolise by arranging the materials visually.

A chart is a useful visual symbol for summarising, comparing or contrasting subject matter. It is not as accurate as a graph. So for mathematical and statistical accuracy, the graph is a superior medium to present various data in a condensed form. Geographical data are best presented in flat maps.

Charts can be effective teaching aids, because they can make facts and figures clear and interesting, emphasise relationships, show size and placement of parts and display operational procedures. They can highlight important points and provide an outline of materials covered in presentation.

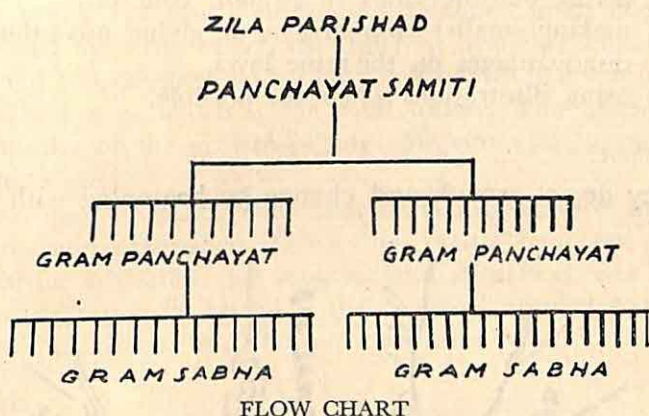
Good charts often use an intermixture of pictures, drawings, cartoons, graphs, diagrams and verbal material. In most cases, only the major points can be shown in charts.

TYPES OF CHARTS

Flow charts:

These are charts which show the flow of processes, e.g.

the steps which legislative bills follow as they move through Parliament.



Or they may show responsibility of work relationships among various administrative sections of a large organisation. Functional leadership is represented in flow charts sometimes by square lines and sometimes by arrows and circles. Text-books on Indian government can describe through the flow charts, our democracy from the Lok Sabha to the Gram Sabha. Dynasties are sometimes depicted in flow charts to show succession of power over hundreds of years. The personnel chart coming under this category, can start with the chief executive and go down the line. The flow of power and responsibilities must be clearly visible.

In making a flow chart, one must remember that lines should be used to indicate the flow of direction; circles or squares can denote each break-down and captions should be clearly visible. Finally the chart should be made large enough to be seen easily by all.

Time or table chart:

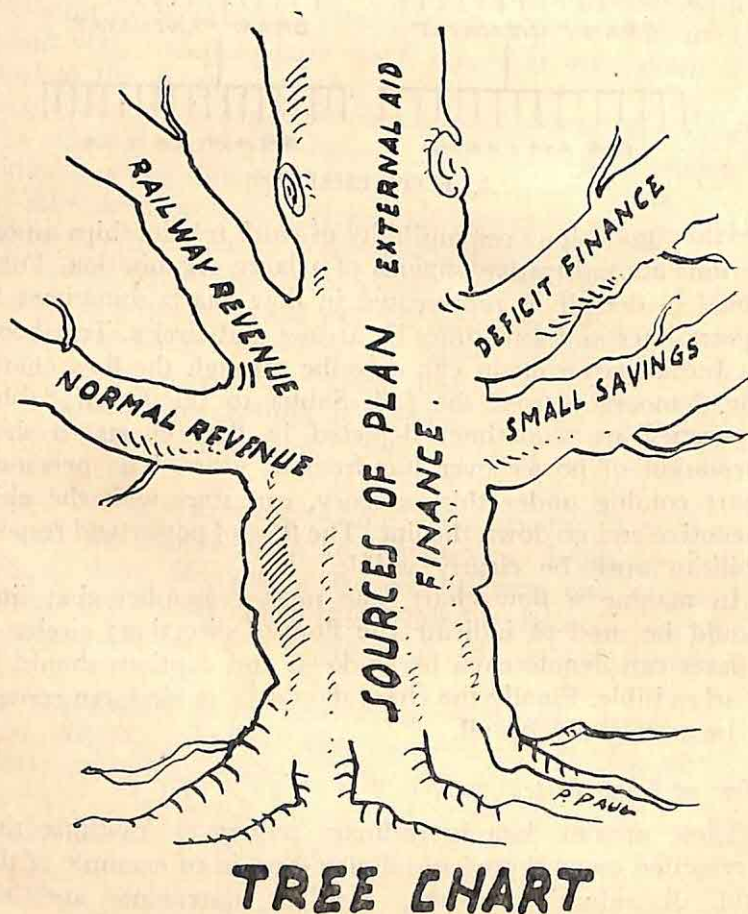
These present data in ordinary sequence. Anything that is recorded or presented in tabular form is an example of this kind. Examination results, accident statements and the number of accidents in a specific time can be presented through a time or table chart. The time chart may also be used for comparisons and for lasting advantages or dis-

advantages of a business or an organisation. In making a time chart, the following points must be remembered:

- (i) laying out the chart in straight columns,
- (ii) making smaller comparisons or giving advantages or disadvantages on the same level,
- (iii) using illustrations whenever possible.

Tree chart:

They depict growth and change by beginning with many



tributaries which then converge into a single channel. The geneological tree is a notable example of a tree chart. A tree

chart might show the result of an important invention, such as nuclear fission or it might show all the raw materials necessary for the manufacture of a finished product such as an automobile. The source of planned finance can be pictorially presented by a tree chart, the different branches showing the different sources from which money is drawn, converging into a single stream which is the total outlay. The history of a community or the growth of any company can be indicated by this system.

How can we teach with charts? Charts can be used for lectures and discussions. Obviously, charts have far greater appeal for educated and sophisticated audiences. But simple charts, depicting for instance, the local irrigation system, may be used in villages on illiterate audiences.

Graphs:

Among the symbolic devices, graphs are important aids. They make facts and statistics, intelligible to the audience at a glance. As their appreciation presupposes a certain amount of technical knowledge, they are unlikely to appeal to illiterate audiences.

Graphs are of four kinds viz. (i) pie, (ii) bar, (iii) line and (iv) picto.

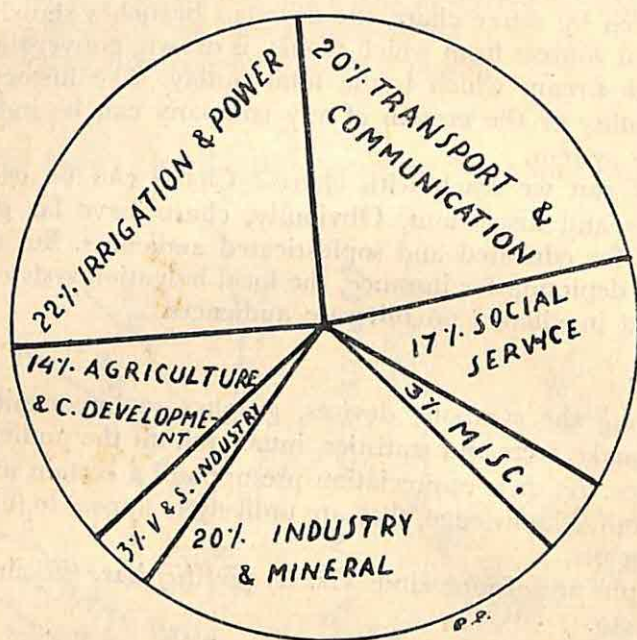
(i) Pie graph:

It is a graph where a circle is divided into segments to indicate different items. The pie represents the total numerical amount and each item is a special percentage of the total amount. The various segments may be differently coloured to show contrast.

Circle or pie graphs are specially helpful where a breakdown or distribution of values has to be impressed upon the reader, as for instance, the growth of areas, allocation of budget on different subjects, etc.

The pie graph is ideal for showing fractional relationships and can be made both attractive and precise. At a glance the relative size of each fractional element as a whole, can be seen. It may, however, present difficulties if segments are too small or equal to one another, so as to make comparison difficult.

DISTRIBUTION OF PLAN OUTLAYS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR



PIE CHART

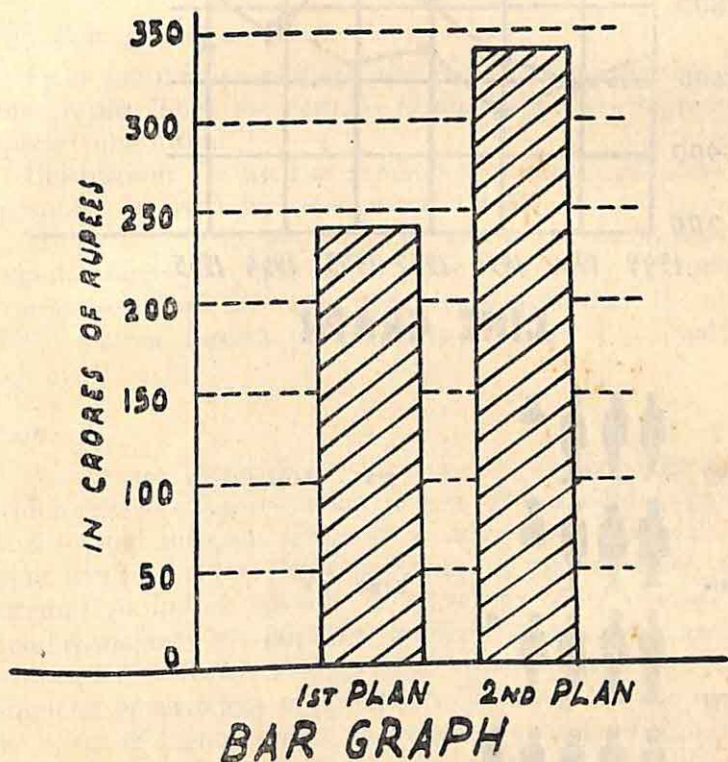
(ii) Bar graphs:

In a bar graph, bars are arranged in vertical or horizontal directions, all beginning from a base zero. There are three types of bar graphs (1) multiple bars—which compare two or more bars with a numbered scale; (2) divided bars—which contain one or more bars having different sub-divisions for each bar, differently coloured and (3) composite bars—which show comparisons of a complicated nature, containing a series of divided bars with lines or arrows moving from one bar to the other to indicate the differences at a time.

Bar graphs may be arranged in different sizes, lengths, and colours, representing different values. Their utility lies in comparing or contrasting subjects like quotas, outputs, wages,

production, targets, etc. The bar graph can be read with extreme accuracy, but it would be wrong to try to do too

AGRICULTURE IN THE 1ST. & 2ND FIVE YEAR PLANS.

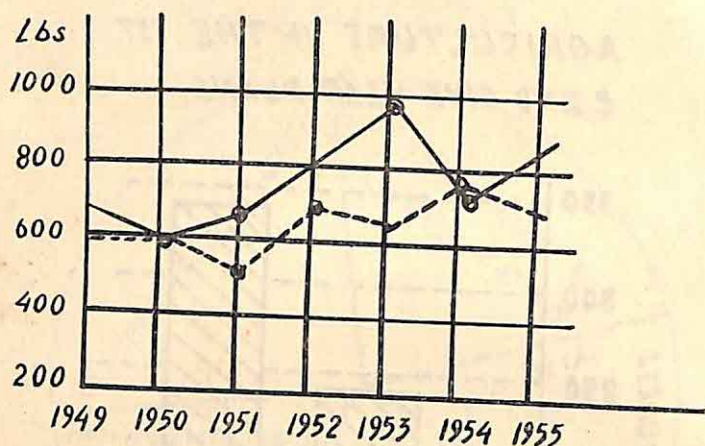


much in a single graph. This will result in visual confusion. The simplest and easiest to read is the single linear bar.

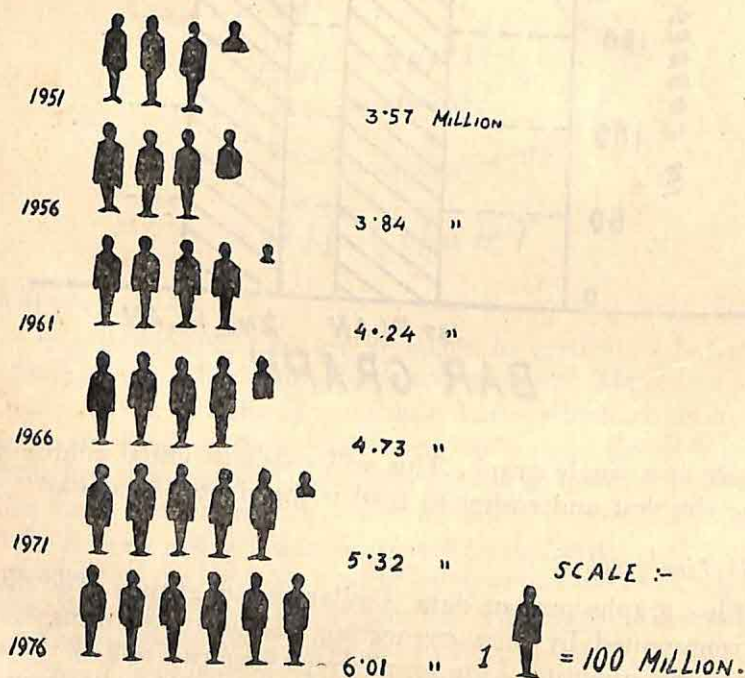
(iii) *Line graphs:*

Line graphs present data, similar to bar graphs. The data is represented by lines connecting points, representing each measured quantity. Line graphs represent two sets of values, placed at right angles—one vertical and the other horizontal.

AVERAGE YIELD OF RICE & WHEAT PER ACRE IN INDIA



LINE GRAPH



PICTOGRAPH

More than one line can be drawn in different colours and different forms.

They focus attention on comparison points, show contrast, and serve well for showing progress, development, or change, over a period of time. The line graph is perhaps the most accurate presentation of data, both simple and complex, among all the graphs.

(iv) *Picto graphs*:

Picto graphs are perhaps the most interesting among all the graphs. They are actually symbolic pictures representing special quantities.

Illustrations are used as symbols to indicate proportionate amounts as given in the numerical table.

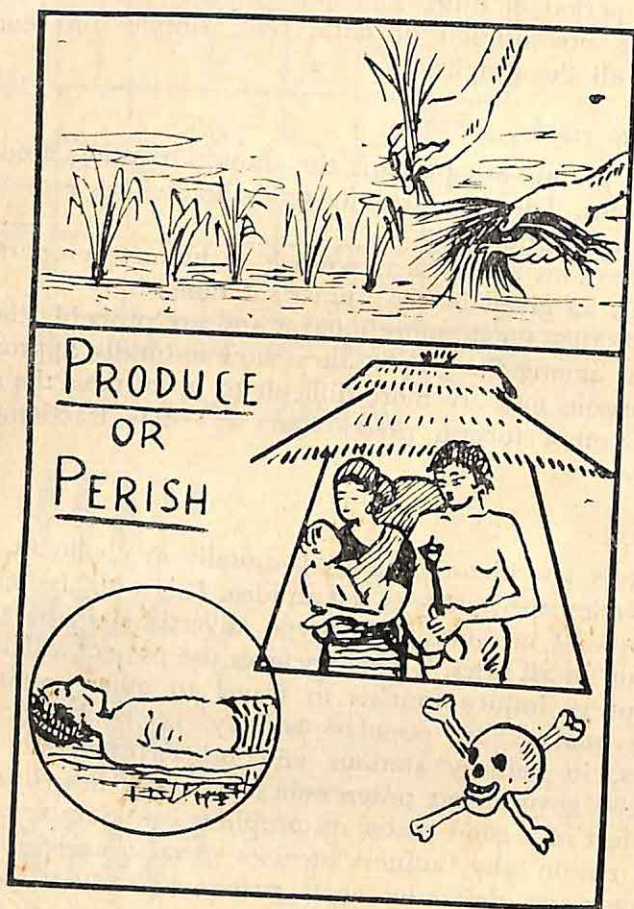
While they create more interest and are probably the most popular among the graphs, they show naturally approximate comparisons and are more difficult to make than the others. They cannot furnish precise data or show fractional percentages.

Posters:

Posters are pictorial designs—usually symbolic in nature which telescope a story or sell an idea. It is a highly suggestive audio-visual medium. Poster-type advertising materials confront us on all sides. Travel agencies use posters widely in an attempt to induce tourists to travel to other countries or holiday-makers to popular holiday resorts. Government posters, in railway stations and other prominent places, publicise government programmes. Research has shown that the effect of a good poster on people is considerable and this is the reason why business agencies spend considerable sums of money on designing good posters for advertising their products.

The advantage of a poster is that it tells a story or conveys a message at a glance. The poster can be so attractively devised that anybody is automatically attracted to it. The caption should also compel attention. The poster, if properly produced and used, will hammer home a single dominant idea and incite the viewers to immediate action. Posters can be used in many situations: in adult education classes, group

discussions, exhibitions, melas, markets and public places. Good posters are often ineffective because they are placed in a poor position and not posted. To recapitulate: a good poster should contain a brief and striking slogan in bold



letters, should contain pictures to compel popular attention, should tell the complete story at a glance, should be timely and embody one dominant idea.

CARTOONS

Cartoons are essentially comic pictures, designed to amuse people. But a good cartoon does not have laughter as its sole

aim. Through humour, a cartoonist tries to express a certain viewpoint. He may lampoon the existing customs, habits and prejudices of the society in which he lives or he may satirize the activities of political institutions or political leaders.

The technique of the cartoonist is to exaggerate certain characteristics deliberately. By distorting reality, he not only makes his points but tries to convert his viewers to his opinion.

The cartoon, therefore, has an educational value. It can be used extensively in schools, as has been the case, in the United Kingdom and the United States of America. Apart from anything else, good cartoons can develop our sense of humour which is necessary for objectivity.

In our training centres, we can use the cartoon drawings in posters or even in flash cards or flannel graphs, for instance, on subjects like 'How to and how not to conduct group discussions.' They can be shown not only to amuse but also to start discussion on these subjects. That will certainly break the monotony of lectures or stereotyped discussions.

But cartoons also have their limitations and we should do well to bear this in mind. For one thing, a cartoon is sharply in favour of or hostile to something. It blesses or damns; it blackens or whitewashes. It does not offer a balanced point of view. Moreover, a cartoon loses its value unlike that of a film or film strip, on a second showing.

Cartoons, therefore, can occupy a place in our teaching method. Subject to the limitations mentioned above, we can draw good cartoons on subjects which involve human relationship or behaviour and start group discussions.

MODELS

Models are useful teaching aids because they are the exact replica, in miniature size, of a real object. Real objects may occasionally be too large to be brought to the class-room, too small to be seen or handled or too complex to be understood. They may also be inaccessible, expensive and sometimes dangerous to have in the class-room.

For these reasons, real objects can seldom be used in teaching. Models, therefore, either larger or smaller than the real thing, are one solution to the problem. The models are powerful teaching aids because they possess the capacity of bring-

ing into play, all the five senses of touch, sight, hearing, smell and taste. They can be used in the class-room, in the Adult Education Centres, in exhibitions and in group discussions. They are usually divided into three categories, viz. scale models, cross-section models and working models.

The scale models represent the external form and shape of the original object, while cross-section models reveal the internal structure of the real object and are constructed in such a way as to be dismantled easily. The hidden features of any machinery such as the motor automobile engine, can be best expressed by cross-sectional models.

Working models show the operation of the essential parts of a real object. The working of the telegraph, telephone, electric motor and dynamo are best explained by working models. This category of models is obviously the most expensive.

EXHIBITS

Although it may not always be convenient to bring real objects into the class-room, they may be brought into an exhibition. The importance of a well-planned exhibition, in disseminating ideas, cannot be overemphasised. The items exhibited may not only arrest the attention of the visitors, but cause deep impression on their minds also. The village housewife can see the working of a 'Smokeless Oven' in an exhibition and if she is convinced about its utility, will, in a majority of cases, try it out in her own kitchen.

Normally, however, our village exhibitions are poorly organised. Exhibits are not adequately explained to the visiting public. In each booth there should be a person who like an advertiser, must constantly go on talking about the products and supplying information on them. This is important, as the villagers on their own initiative normally do not tend to ask questions.

There is also a tendency to prefer the spectacular and the uncommon in choosing village products. It is a customary sight in every village exhibition to see monster melons, cabbages, and other agricultural products. Such sizes, to say the least, are freaks of nature. They cannot be repeated at will. For educational purposes, it is more effective to show the

villager, good average-sized products which he can normally expect to have through the application of knowledge and work. This is why it is very important to give the cost of production, the amount of labour involved, and other details for every product displayed.

Some method demonstrations should also be organised in the exhibition. Any movement or action is bound to attract attention. Unfortunately, most village exhibitions lack this. They are usually lifeless and without planning. Two more things are to be recollected. The exhibition above all, is to be organised with a view to having follow-up activities; and secondly, the greatest publicity should be given to it in advance. For this reason, it may be convenient for the Block staff to organise exhibitions on religious or festive occasions coinciding with village melas where a large number of people are expected to be present.

In our training centres, Gram Sevaks, E.S.Os, and even B.D.Os can be asked to organise exhibitions with simple village products, on the lines suggested above. This would be good practical training for them.

AURAL AIDS

Among the aural aids, the tape-recorder is probably the most important for the class-room. It can be used for a variety of purposes like learning foreign languages, vocal or instrumental music, elocution, etc. In training centres, we can record good speeches delivered by guest lecturers and play them back when we want. Another purpose for which tape-recorders can be utilised, is correcting our defects in delivering lectures. A new lecturer, while rehearsing his lesson or even after delivering his first lecture, can hear himself played back and correct the defects in his own speech. We have so far not utilised the tape-recorder adequately for this purpose.

How to and how not to conduct a discussion can similarly be recorded with experimental groups and played back either to other batches of trainees or to village audiences. The audience can then discuss the merits and demerits of the discussion they have just heard after listening to the recorded discussion.

RADIO

The radio, as is well known, plays an important part in communication. In extension work, we have recently started using it in this country. The most important scheme in this respect is the Radio Rural Forum which an extension worker has to form in the villages where there are community listening sets. The villagers who are grouped into a Radio Rural Forum listen to programmes specially broadcast for village audiences on subjects like agriculture and village development and send their comments to the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting about the broadcast. In this way the government hopes to organise listening among village people, as well as to disseminate useful information among them.

MICROPHONE

Microphones can be mainly used in village meetings or in big meetings and gatherings. There is very little scope for its use in the class-room as an educational aid.

FOLK MEDIA OF COMMUNICATION

In addition to the modern A.V. aids described above, we have, in this country, a large number of traditional aids to learning. The temple carvings, sculptures and cave paintings of Ajanta show to what extent our forefathers strove to propagate certain ideas through the medium of sculpture and paintings among the people.

Apart from the plastic arts, through the living arts like folk poetry, drama and dance, village minstrels still try to propagate certain ideals of life among the local people. Whoever has seen a Jatra in rural Bengal or Ramlila in other parts of India, 'Kavigan' or 'Poet's fight' can testify, to what extent, extension work in traditional themes, is done by village poet-artists.

One of the most important and entertaining among the traditional aids, is puppetry. It was a very popular art in villages in ancient India, the puppets being huge in size and manipulated by a combination of rods and strings. The shows were generally given during village fairs and in the houses of rich people on important occasions. Although the use of puppets has considerably decreased of late in India, on

account of the popularity of the cinema, interesting puppet shows are still seen on special occasions in villages in Bengal and Rajasthan.

In the old days, the theme of most of these traditional media of communication was mythological. But they also tried through mythology to preach morals. For instance, through the story of Rama, they preached how an ideal life should be lived; through the story of Sita or Savitri, they preached the ideals of Hindu womanhood. In fact, some of the main teachings of Hinduism were expressed through these folk media of communication in our villages.

This art is dying out. Yet whenever a good 'kavigan' or puppet show has been organised, the village people have shown enthusiasm. The problem before our extension workers, therefore, is how to revive these aids and imbue them with new meaning. Not only are they fairly cheap to produce and suited to village conditions, but they also have great aesthetic possibilities.

In the C.D. Blocks, sometimes an imaginative Gram Sevak or a S.E.O., hits upon an idea and tries to utilise these traditional folk entertainment methods, for propagation of community development ideals. In one case a V.L.W. organised a Kavigan on the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation. It not only amused and interested the villagers, but imparted considerable information. This also simplified his approach to different village groups on this subject and he ultimately succeeded in propagating the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation extensively in his area.

Mostly, however, we are either not using these folk methods or using them in an unimaginative way, which does not leave much impression on the audience.

What we need, therefore, is to make a thorough and detailed study of these folk methods in our training institutions as well as in the villages to find out how best we can utilise these methods in our work in agricultural and other programmes.

EVALUATION OF A.V AIDS

While we have to build up enthusiasm among our educators for the use of audio-visual aids, we must also guard against the danger of using them indiscriminately. For this,

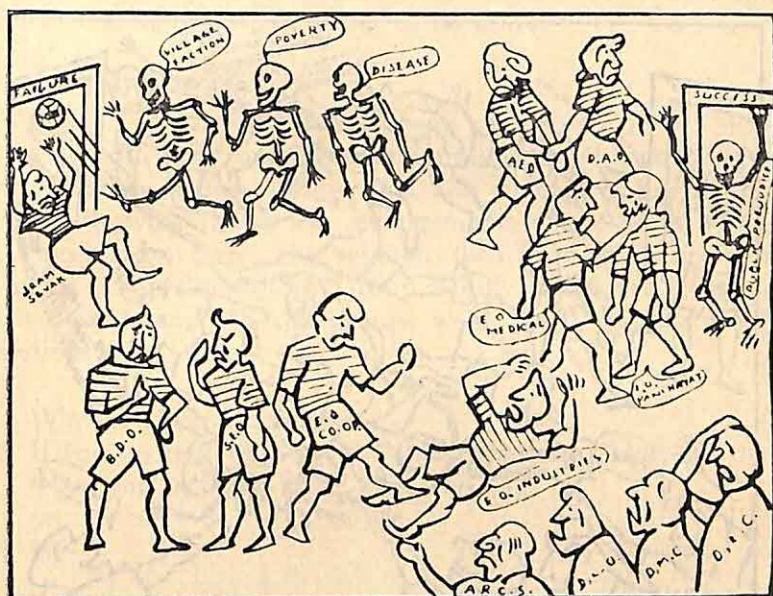
we must carry out at intervals, adequate evaluation of these aids through subjective and objective tests. These tests will prove to the teacher whether the aids he is using are proving effective or he is just using them for the sake of using A.V. aids. They will also enable him continually to improve the quality of the aids he is displaying and his presentation.

SUBJECTIVE TEST

Subjective evaluation of A.V. aids is achieved by asking those who have seen the aids, to evaluate them. A number of questions like the following can be asked and the answers will give us an indication of the reaction of the audience.

	1	2	3	4	5
Points in the lecture illustrated by A.V. Aids					
Type of aid used, under each point					
Has the aid been presented imaginatively by the lecturer?					
Was the aid related to the points?					
Has it been produced imaginatively?					
Has the aid made the points clear to you? Would you have understood the points without the aid, just as well?					
Any other remarks?					

Once two cartoons (given below) were shown to a group of trainees through flash-cards. Their comments on the lines of the above proforma, were thoughtful and showed that the cartoons were viewed critically.



LACK OF CO-ORDINATION: THE SURE WAY TO FAILURE

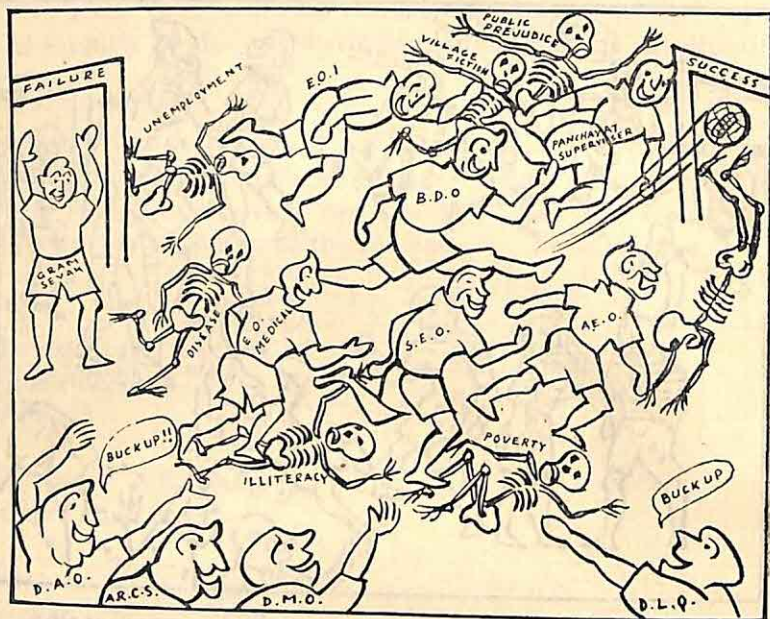
The usual criticism was that as there were too many figures, screen projection would have been better than showing them on flash cards. The other comments were: writing of captions on the goalpost was misleading, the Gram Sevak and not the B.D.O. should have been the centre forward and so on.

But in spite of these instances, the subjective evaluation of A.V. aids does not carry us far. It only gives us some idea of whether people like a particular A.V. aid and its presentation or not. We cannot glean accurately from their comments the extent to which the aid was effective. This we can only find out from objective experiments, designed to test the effectiveness of a particular A.V. demonstration.

OBJECTIVE TEST

Objective experiments can be practised on two groups

whose level of intelligence is approximately the same. We can show audio-visual aids to one group and not the other, along with an identical lecture delivered to both. Then the two groups can be tested by means of questions and we can



PERFECT TEAMWORK: THE KEY TO SUCCESS

ascertain which group has learnt more. If after repeated experiments, we find that the group which has been shown audio-visual aids along with the lecture, does consistently better, then we must conclude that audio-visual aids are effective.

We are giving below three experiments which were actually conducted on two sophisticated groups by us, on the lines noted above. The immediate aim of these experiments, was to test whether audio-visual aids had an effect on sophisticated minds and to what extent.

Experiment I

Subject : *Different forms of discussions*

A.V. Aids: *Flannel-graph cutouts*

ORGANISATION

Two groups were taken—each group consisting of 14 trainees. They were adjudged to be of more or less equal calibre from their performance in the training centre, their academic abilities and general observation. They were not informed that they were going to be tested.

CONDUCTING THE TEST

A lecture on 'The different forms of discussion' was delivered to both the groups for 58 minutes as timed by the clock. Group A was shown audio-visual aids such as flannel-graph cutouts showing the sitting arrangements of the panel form, the symposium form, the seminar form and the workshop form of group discussions. Group B only heard the lectures. Five days later both the groups were asked the following questions:

1. What is a panel discussion?
2. If you want to organise a Panel Discussion, what are the steps, one by one?
 - (a)
 - (b)
 - (c)
 - (d)
3. What is a symposium?
4. How is a panel different from a symposium?
 - (a)
 - (b)
 - (c)
5. How is a panel similar to a symposium?
 - (a)
 - (b)
 - (c)
6. What is the role played by the audience in a panel?
 - (a) at the beginning
 - (b) at the end
7. What is the role of the audience in the symposium?
 - (a) at the beginning
 - (b) at the end

8. What are the different steps in the 'Seminar' method?
 - (a)
 - (b)
 - (c)
 - (d)
 - (e)
9. How are the activities of the seminar group guided?
10. What is the body called which guides the activities of the seminar group?
11. What is a workshop?
12. What are its main functions?
13. How is it organised?
 - (a)
 - (b)
 - (c)
 - (d)
14. How is a workshop different from a seminar?
 - (a)
 - (b)
 - (c)

The answer papers were marked by the lecturer who showed the audio-visual aids, himself. The marking was done according to a model answer which the lecturer prepared. To obviate the possibility of his being biased either in favour of the A.V. group or against them, the answer papers were mixed up, so that he would not know whether a particular trainee belonged to group A or B.

After his marking, the answer papers were passed over to another Instructor, who marked them independently, in accordance with the model answer paper. The second examiner was considered necessary to make the test more objective. In case the difference of judgement between the two examiners was not substantially high, the results could be taken as objective.

Statisticians hold that if two examiners assign identical marks, the inter-examiner correlation is 1. This is perfect correlation and can only be obtained in an exact science like mathematics. In other subjects, there is always some difference

in judgment between two examiners even if both of them have consulted the same model answer. The inter-examiner correlation will, therefore, be below 1. The nearer it is to 1, the more reliable and objective the results will become. Up to .5, the difference is permissible; if it falls below .5, the test should be repeated.

In this case, according to the first examiner, group A (Audio-Visual Group) secured, on an average, 6.7 marks higher than group B. According to the second examiner, group A secured 3.37 marks higher than group B on an average. The correlation between the examiners on group A was .86. The correlation on group B was .97. This showed a close correlation in the judgement of both the examiners and the results could be considered objective.

The difference between the performance of the audio-visual group and the non-audio-visual group was also very significant. It was found by another statistical formula that the probability of such a large difference between the 2 groups being attributable to the chance factor was only 5 per cent, i.e. negligible. In other words, this difference was due in 95 per cent cases to some other factor. As most of the conditions governing the two groups were similar, the only factor that could have caused this difference between the groups, was the audio-visual aid.

CONCLUSION

The conclusion from this experiment after all the statistical tests had been concluded, was that the audio-visual aid was accountable for the difference in performance.

Experiment 2

Subject: *Comparison of planning in India and Communist countries*

Audio-visual Aids: *Flannel-graph cutouts*.

ORGANISATION

The composition of the two groups was kept constant. But this time audio-visual aids were shown to group B and not to A. The lecture to both the groups covered 50 minutes and was identical in content.

TEST

Two days after, the groups were asked the following question: 'What are the main differences between planning in India and in Communist countries?'

RESULT

The same procedure of marking by different examiners following a model answer was followed. According to the first examiner, the group that was shown audio-visual aids, secured 3.6 marks higher than the group to which only a pure lecture was given. According to the second examiner, the difference in the average obtained by the audio-visual aid and non-audio-visual aid groups was 4.6. The inter-examiner correlation of marks obtained in both cases was close. This again showed a high degree of objectivity and the results were considered reliable.

As in the previous experiment, it was statistically found that the probability of the chance factor being the cause of difference in the performance of the two groups was only .005 or 5 in a thousand or in other words, in 995 cases some other factor was responsible.

As most of the factors were controlled in this case too, the only variable factor was audio-visual aid. We can, therefore, draw the conclusion that the difference in the performance is due to audio-visual aid alone.

Experiment 3

Subject: *The aims of the Three Five Year Plans in India*

Audio-visual Aids shown: *Flannel-graph cutouts*

ORGANISATION

Group A was shown audio-visual aids as in the first experiment. Composition of the two groups remained the same as before.

TEST

A lecture on the subject was delivered for 55 minutes to each group. One day after, both the groups had to answer the following question:

'What are the distinctive objectives, emphasised in the lecture you have heard, of the First, Second and Third Five Year Plans?'

RESULT

The first examiner, on an average, gave the audio-visual aid group 1.2 marks higher than the non-audio-visual aid group. The second examiner gave the audio-visual aid group .9 marks higher than the non-audio-visual aid group. The inter-examiner correlation on the marks given to the audio-visual aid group was .87 per cent; that on the second group was .93 per cent. This again showed perfect objectivity of judgement.

But unlike the previous cases, statistical tests proved that the chance factor in 10 out of 100 cases could account for the large difference. Therefore, audio-visual aids were not so effective as in the two previous cases.

These tests, on the whole, proved that audio-visual aids could be highly effective on sophisticated groups too. The extent of their effectiveness varied, however. In the first experiment, it was quite effective; in the second experiment it was strikingly effective, but in the last experiment it did not make much difference. These results, therefore, raise some other questions which require to be answered by further tests. The difference in effectiveness can be accounted for by the quality of the aid and presentation, and may be also by the fact that some subjects are more amenable to audio-visual aids or to a particular type of audio-visual aid, than others. In order, therefore, to find the effectiveness of a particular audio-visual aid, we have to conduct a series of experiments with a number of different aids, to find out which particular aid would suit that subject. We can also find out by analysing the answer papers, on which particular point in a lecture, a particular audio-visual aid was most effective. This would help us to improve the quality of our audio-visual aids.

This experiment has been given in some detail merely to point out the need for research in the field. Every training centre, should do original research work and creative work of this type within the limitations imposed by finance and human resources.

CONCLUSION

We have already mentioned that the use of audio-visual aids was not unknown in the past and that every country had and still has some traditional media of communication. India, particularly, has tried to express her deepest religious beliefs and social values through the medium of these aids.

What else are the stone images of the Hindu Pantheon, except visual aids to comprehend the Divine? The philosophers and founders of religion in India, must have realised long ago that abstract ideas cannot be grasped by the common people. So, material symbols had to be invented to help them.

But in doing so, our forefathers also revealed, perhaps involuntarily, the weakness of visual aids. Their original conception of God—eternal and infinite, became limited in the popular imagination by its stone symbol. The common man for whom the image was invented could not advance beyond it in his attempts to visualise the Godhead. The material symbol, instead of helping his imagination, shackled it.

Visual aids cannot help us in understanding abstract concepts. In the realm of higher mathematics or philosophy, logic or religion, it is the mental faculty of the learner that can help him and not visual aids.

Audio-visual aids as a whole, are meant to express material situations and material values and even there, they cannot be used indiscriminately. Where something cannot be normally visualised without some picture or symbol of it, where something cannot be understood or remembered unless it is heard repeatedly, only there do audio-visual aids become useful.

But above all, audio-visual aids cannot be effective in isolation. They have to precede or accompany one or other of the major teaching methods like lectures, discussions, field trips and demonstrations.

Section III

DEMONSTRATION

One of the best ways of teaching new practices or making

people adopt new practices is by showing evidence of success. This is known as the 'demonstration method', and it has been effective as a teaching method from the dawn of human history. From childhood we learn by watching what adults do. The observers can always keep more in mind, what can be seen and better still, what can be done by their own hands, than what is read or heard.

A demonstration must, however, be distinguished from a trial or an experiment. Demonstration purports to show a known truth. A trial or an experiment is a quest for truth. It would be futile, if not dangerous, to demonstrate a practice unless it is based on adequate research.

Experts consider 'demonstration' as one of the best teaching methods, from the point of view of efficiency or power of conviction. The reaction that it stimulates often takes on the characteristics of a real contagion. Its mass communication power makes this method particularly useful for teaching groups rather than individuals, although the individuals on whom the demonstration is first tried, can act as powerful agents for carrying the idea to the group.

A good demonstration requires a lot of time, involving much hard work and adequate preparation. In India, extension workers have not been able to spare this time owing to the load of miscellaneous work, which they have had to do. This, however, is an administrative problem and can only be solved by administrative measures.

We are concerned here more with the problems that can be solved by the workers themselves. Problems can be created, for instance, if demonstrations are conducted before a practice has been thoroughly proved.

The author remembers witnessing demonstrations of 'bull-lock driven tubewells' in three or four villages. Apparently, enough trials had not been conducted to establish their utility and in most cases, the demonstrations failed to convince the villagers. In one place, the tubewell performed so badly, that the demonstration led to a loss of confidence in the local extension worker.

For this reason, it is often necessary for the extension worker to conduct a trial privately, where he has doubts and convince himself about the utility of a practice, before he tries it

on others. If his doubts are not resolved by the trial, he should seek further guidance from the technical authorities, before he proceeds with the demonstration.

But it is here, that extension workers, particularly Gram Sevaks, are on shaky ground. Most of them lack sufficient technical knowledge to set up a demonstration properly, not to speak of conducting research. Moreover, many Gram Sevaks conduct a demonstration without adequate previous discussion, group or individual contact or any kind of preparation. These problems can be solved through proper training.

TYPES OF DEMONSTRATIONS

There are two types of demonstrations. When a demonstration is used to show how to carry out a practice, e.g. the planting of seeds according to a certain method or the use of new types of implements, it is called method demonstration. The aim of the demonstration is always to teach a new practice.

When the effect of a new technique or a new practice is shown, as for instance, the action of fertilizers on the crop yield, it is called result demonstration. A result demonstration always involves comparison between the effect of an old practice and that of a new.

In each of these types, it is possible to distinguish simple or complex demonstrations, short-term or long-term demonstrations, according to the operations involved and their duration.

In all the demonstrations, the extension worker is concerned with the following four stages:

- (a) tests or trials to check the validity of a recommended solution or improved practices for a particular area,
- (b) publicity before demonstration,
- (c) carrying out the demonstration,
- (d) follow-up measures.

In the first phase as has been mentioned, the extension worker should try out the truth of the precept established by survey or experiment and ascertain its application to local conditions. The tests and trials may be considered as his laboratory in which he personally gives his attention. Actually this should be the work of the research station and not that

of the field worker. Unfortunately, in India, the experimental centres or funds are few. So the field worker should first satisfy himself about the effectiveness of the new method before he practices it on others.

When he is carrying out the demonstration, the responsibility for carrying on the work rests chiefly on the man on whom the demonstration is being tried. In agriculture, it is the progressive farmer on whose plot the demonstration is being carried out and he should be chiefly responsible not only for the demonstration but for giving it the widest measure of publicity also.

In the course of follow-up work, the demonstrator and the extension worker should study the effectiveness of their work. They should ascertain the extent to which the practices illustrated have been adopted.

METHOD DEMONSTRATION

In a method demonstration, the extension worker must plan in detail. He should keep the following points in view, if he wants his demonstration to be successful:

- (i) Outlining the logical steps of the demonstration, e.g. selection of place or site, selection of the demonstrator and fixing the time of demonstration;
- (ii) preparing talking points;
- (iii) carefully selecting materials and tools;
- (iv) arranging for diagrams or other teaching aids;
- (v) rehearsing the demonstration again and again to preclude the possibilities of any hitch during the actual showing,
- (vi) being at the spot early to check up equipment and materials;
- (vii) making arrangements to enable all participants to have a good look at the demonstration and take part in discussion.

During the demonstration, he should show each operation slowly, inviting questions at every step. Although what he says must be clear and complete, he should not take up more than one point at a time. He can begin the demonstration by telling the villagers what is being demonstrated and why the

demonstration is being conducted. The next thing to do would be to ask the villagers the steps of the demonstration. As many villagers as possible, should be encouraged to try the practice on the spot.

Each method demonstration has to be followed up. In following up, the undernoted points should be remembered:

- (i) the names of those who have attended the demonstration, should be obtained,
- (ii) a list should be made out of those who intend to adopt the new practice. This would help in the follow-up.
- (iii) certain village leaders should be entrusted with the task of watching the adoption of new practices.

Moreover, extension workers while following up, should try to discover the things that may prevent the adoption of a new method, like non-availability of materials or criticism by members of the family who did not see the demonstration and who belittled the new way.

The effectiveness of a new demonstration whether method or result, can be tested by observing the number who adopt the method. The success of a method demonstration would depend on:

- (a) the extent to which the new practice demonstrated is really important to the villagers,
- (b) the extent to which the equipment and materials necessary to carry out the practices are available and can be afforded by the villagers,
- (c) the care with which the extension worker prepared for the demonstration,
- (d) the extent to which the person in whose house or land the demonstration was made, enjoys popularity,,
- (e) the extent to which the advance publicity to build up interest and secure wide participation is made.

ADVANTAGES OF METHOD DEMONSTRATION

By systematically showing a person how to carry out a practice and stimulating action through seeing, hearing, discussing and participating, method demonstrations can exert an immediate influence on the spectators.

Moreover, as it involves action, it is an invaluable method of attracting attention.

It also has the advantage of reaching many pupils at the same time through one teacher.

Finally, it helps an extension worker quickly to develop the confidence of the villagers in his ability.

But in spite of these advantages, method demonstrations suffer from certain disadvantages also. They are not suited to all subject matter for one thing. Moreover, they need a good deal of preparation and skill on the part of the extension worker.

Some of the subjects on which the method demonstration can be used are:

- (i) construction of sanitary latrines,
- (ii) making soakpits,
- (iii) making smokeless ovens,
- (iv) line sowing of paddy,
- (v) handling the Japanese Paddy Weeder,
- (vi) seed treatment,
- (vii) handling plant protection equipment, etc.

While conducting or even before conducting the demonstration, extension workers should not make derogatory remarks about the existing practices of the villagers. Secondly, they must be absolutely confident that they can demonstrate effectively, whatever they want to demonstrate, before they attempt it. Nothing causes loss of faith more than hearing a man preach something which he cannot practise himself.

RESULT DEMONSTRATION:

In planning the demonstration, the following steps should be borne in mind:

- (i) discussing with people and finding out their interest,
- (ii) outlining a definite plan and putting it in writing,
- (iii) selecting representative demonstrators in consultation with local people,
- (iv) consulting the specialists,
- (v) discussing and planning with the selected demonstrators,
- (vi) giving wide publicity.

In conducting the demonstration, every extension worker must adhere to the following sequence:

- (i) getting all the materials ready,
- (ii) starting the demonstration in the presence of the villagers,
- (iii) marking the demonstration plot with large signs if it is an agricultural demonstration,
- (iv) assisting the local demonstrator in keeping difficult records,
- (v) making a calendar of operations,
- (vi) visiting the demonstration site regularly for supervision and guidance,
- (vii) giving publicity to the demonstration,
- (viii) conducting field trips to the site,
- (ix) enlisting others to adopt new practices.

Result demonstration is the best method of testing an improved practice under village conditions and to show the villager its value. If it is successful most villagers can be expected to adopt the practice.

In order to be successful every extension worker must remember that:

- (a) the demonstrator should be a local person who enjoys considerable popularity in his community. As the main responsibility for dissemination of the practices would fall on the demonstrator, it is necessary that he should be a man who enjoys local confidence. In other countries, like the U.S.A. or the Netherlands, a demonstrator is usually selected by the community. But in India, the community is hardly conscious or organised enough to make such selections. Therefore, the extension worker has to make the selection himself. But he should do it with considerable caution. The demonstrator should be conscious about his or her responsibility for the successful completion of the demonstration, for meticulously following up every instruction and also for publicity. He should also secure necessary physical equipment and supplies of materials to carry the demonstration to a successful conclusion.
- (b) The man to be chosen should be as representative as

possible of the community for whom the demonstration is directed. Moreover, he should have no special resource which would be unavailable to others.

- (c) He should also be prepared to record facts, figures and results and to agree in their publication.
- (d) After completion of the demonstration, the demonstrator himself must persist in using the recommended techniques. In some conservative communities, an innovator who starts a new practice is often criticised and often derided by others. He should have conviction enough to withstand such criticism. The demonstrator is, therefore, very important.

If it is an agricultural demonstration, the farm or plot selected for the demonstration should have some well-defined characteristics. It should be typical of the area served according to the type of soil, farming system, rotation and farm management. It should be selected so as to be within easy reach of the majority of the people concerned. The cultivator demonstrator who agrees to select a plot of land on which he will follow in detail the new practices, must verify that it is a plot of the same size and soil quality on which he will continue to follow his regular methods. The plot to be visited by others should be clearly visible from the road.

Before a general demonstration takes place, it would be better if a village leader tries out the new practice in his own field. Suppose, for instance, the Village Agricultural Production Plan is being tried in a village. If each member of the Production Committee tries out the new methods in his plot, it would create interest and be a safeguard against possible failure.

The extension worker must also see that the practice to be demonstrated is the one that the majority of the villagers can adopt, if the demonstration is successful, and that there is at least a nucleus of village interest in the problem the demonstration is trying to solve.

It would be advisable to select different local demonstrators in different areas to undertake the demonstrations. Sticking to the same demonstrator for several demonstrations, will not disseminate information effectively.

Organising field trips for a result demonstration, is a very important factor for success. In case of crop demonstrations, field trips should be organised at least thrice—first, when the demonstration is being started; second, at mid-point during growth and third, at the end of harvesting time.

Lastly, the demonstration must be opened at the published time and a carefully planned time-schedule should be followed. The demonstration may be accompanied by a spoken commentary by the demonstrating farmer himself. Differences in costs and returns should be clearly stated at every stage. Difference in net profits which have been realistically calculated carry conviction in most demonstrations. Before taking leave of the audience, the demonstrator must find out who wishes to consult him further about applying the same techniques in his own farm.

An important factor is follow-up work. The extension worker must visit the farmers periodically. In fact, there should be enough provision for follow-up as is necessary, to ensure the success of the demonstration.

ADVANTAGES

Result demonstrations convince hesitant farmers. Even the most reluctant can be persuaded to adopt new practices, if the results can be shown to be favourable. They provide factual data and local leadership. They build confidence in extension work.

TEACHING THROUGH RESULT DEMONSTRATION

The extension worker should draw up a teaching plan providing for time and methods of using the demonstration. The teaching plan should show:

- (a) what meetings are to be held in connection with the demonstration and when they are to be held,
- (b) what publicity through what medium is to be given in conjunction with the demonstration.

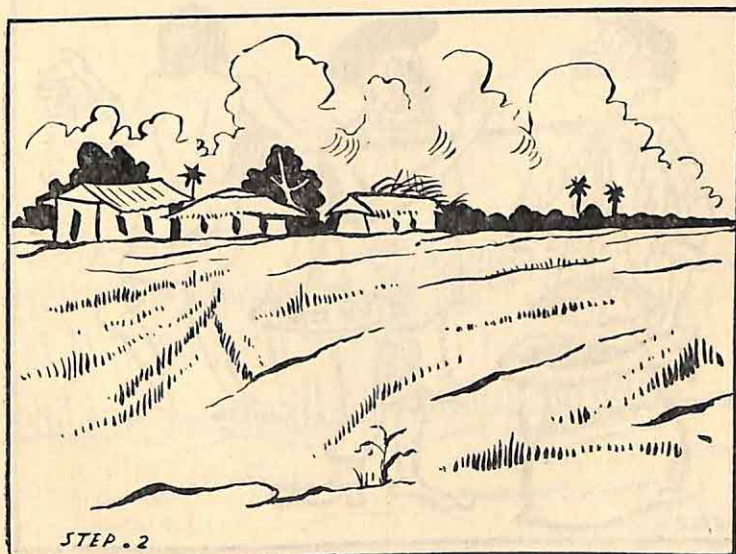
LIMITATIONS OF RESULT DEMONSTRATIONS

The limitations of result demonstration mainly are:

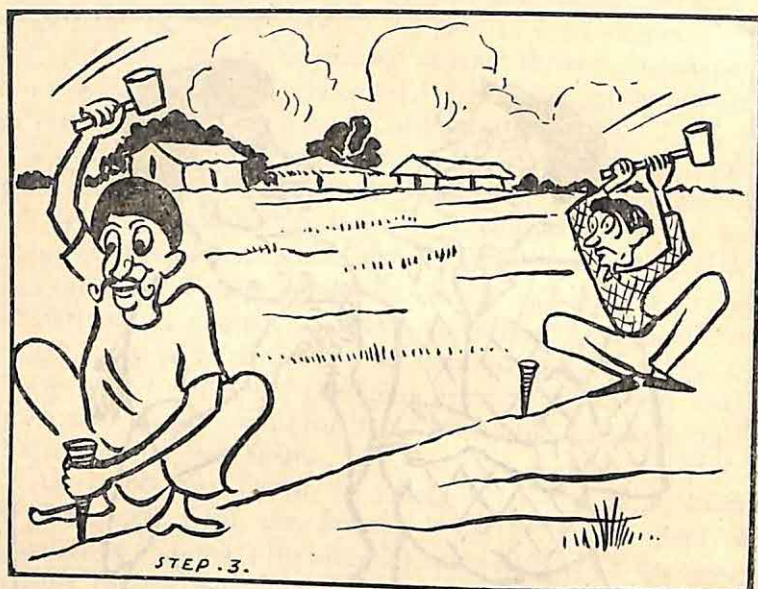
- (a) It is risky and should be indulged in only when the extension worker is completely sure of himself. An un-



SELECT A GOOD MAN EARLY



A SUITABLE FIELD

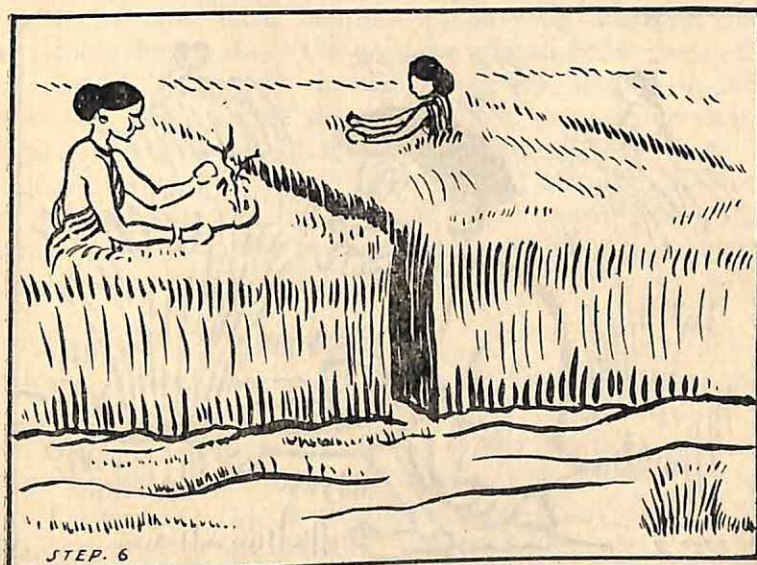


MARK THE LIMITS OF THE PLOT

WEIGH AND APPLY FERTILIZER TO VARIOUS PLOTS
AS PLANNED



PUT ALL RECORDS IN A BOOK



GIVE ALL PLOTS THE SAME CARE



WHEN THE DEMONSTRATION EFFECT IS PLAINLY VISIBLE, PLACE A FLAG OVER IT; LABEL THE PLOT



HARVEST EACH CROP SEPARATELY

successful demonstration may create strong unfavourable conditions for other extension activities.

- (b) It is difficult to find out a suitable demonstrator willing to keep records and take the full responsibility for the demonstration and its publicity.
- (c) It requires laboratory trials and thorough preparation, which is not done by Gram Sevaks.

Result demonstrations can be used to show the:

- (a) effect of line sowing of jute,
- (b) effect of Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation.
- (c) effect of spraying with D.D.T as anti-malaria measures,
- (d) effect of upgrading of livestock,
- (e) effect of use of improved implements.

TRAINING IN DEMONSTRATION

The main responsibility for organising the demonstration will fall on the Gram Sevak. Every Extension Training Centre has, therefore, to give him a considerable amount of practical training in this work. The Gram Sevak must also know something about the technical factors that will govern the result in agriculture or in any other field. Before setting up a demonstration, he must have adequate preparation. He must convince the villagers about the need for adopting the new practice through systematic discussion supplemented by audio-visual aids. Even before the discussion, it may be necessary for him to organise field trips for progressive farmers, both inside or outside the Block. A more detailed discussion on how the different functionaries like the Gram Sevaks, the E.Os and the B.D.Os should be trained in organising and supervising demonstrations will appear in a later chapter.

LIMITATIONS OF DEMONSTRATION

Although demonstration may be the most important extension method, everything cannot be demonstrated. The good effects of drinking tubewell water, for instance, or vaccination cannot be demonstrated before a group of people. Only the person whose health has benefited may understand the importance of the practice. But even here, there are so many variable factors that it may become difficult to demon-

strate the good effects of improved health practices even to an individual. Therefore, people have to be convinced through other methods like the testimony of village leaders, group discussions, the use of audio-visual methods like films, etc.

Section IV

FIELD TRIPS

There is no point in having a demonstration unless there are a number of people to witness it. Field trips therefore constitute an essential part in organising demonstrations.

Field trips can be organised on any subject. It can either interest a student in a particular subject and be a starting point of enquiry; or it may help him to assimilate the theoretical lesson better.

In villages, field trips are mostly confined within the village itself. They mean visiting a neighbour's demonstration plot or his home. Conducting field trips in villages is therefore not a very complicated matter. But the extension worker must ensure that adequate publicity for the trip has been given. Prior discussion with the people who intend to undertake the visit, on points to be observed, is helpful. During the visit, the extension worker must take care that whatever is being observed is being adequately explained.

But in the training centres, where trainees are taken to unknown places, the organisation of field trips is much more complicated. If real teaching to our trainees is to be imparted through field trips, considerable planning is required.

In the training centres, we can use field trips for two purposes. In the first place, we can teach a subject effectively through a well-conducted field trip; and secondly, we can teach the trainees how to organise and conduct a field trip.

HOW TO ORGANISE THE FIELD TRIP?

Before we organise a field trip, we have to ask ourselves the following questions:

- (a) Will the trainees learn something from the trip which is not possible in the class-room?
- (b) Will it supplement the lesson given in the class-room?
- (c) Will the trip be completed in the allotted time?
- (d) Are the objects selected for study representative, i.e. will they give the trainees some idea of a subject which will be useful to them in any area?
- (e) Are the trainees interested in the subjects?

A large number of our field trips become useless as we do not select them beforehand. Very often we show the trainees objects which can be easily shown in the class-room through models, film strips or films.

Moreover, we often select field trips before ascertaining whether the trainees are interested in them or not. This leads to aimless wandering and wastage of time.

Organisation of a field trip involves four stages:

- (a) briefing the authorities and guides where the trip is to be made,
- (b) discussion with the trainees before they set out for the trip,
- (c) conducting the trip at the site and
- (d) follow-up.

The organisers of the trip should at first discuss among themselves, the subjects on which field trips can be arranged, the likely places to be visited and the objects to be seen. The trainees should be sounded on this and after their views have been obtained, field trips can be arranged.

(a) BRIEFING THE AUTHORITIES

In most cases we do not plan the trip sufficiently ahead and apprise the authorities thoroughly. At most we give them a vague idea about the purpose of our visit and what has to be shown. This results in confusion and our trainees often return without gaining much from the field.

Of course, a good field trip depends essentially on the extent to which the objects are shown and explained. For this, proper briefing of the guides, who will take the trainees round, is necessary. We should, therefore, contact the autho-

rities long before we actually have the field trip and draw up a schedule, in consultation with them, including places to be visited and objects to be seen and the time to be taken at each place. A copy of the schedule is to be left with the authority and the other copy retained by the training centre.

(b) PRIOR DISCUSSION WITH THE TRAINEES

Next, the lecturer who is organising the field trip on his subject, should have a discussion with the trainees about the trip and what to see during the trip.

Some guide points regarding what to observe can be drawn up, cyclostyled and distributed among the trainees. A copy of the discussion with the trainees including the guide points, can be forwarded to the guides who will show the trainees round. This may give them further details about what the trainees should see in the field, so that they can also prepare in advance.

(c) CONDUCTING THE TRIP AT THE SITE

While at the site, certain arrangements have to be made to see that time is not wasted. In the first place, the trainees should be properly grouped. If there is a sufficient number of guides available, the number of groups can be increased, each group consisting of a small number of trainees, so that greater attention to each trainee regarding his observation can be given. Moreover, if there are three or four places to be visited within a particular area, the groups can be taken round in rotation. Lastly, while at the site, the organisers must see that the trainees follow the strict schedule and do not waste time in seeing objects which were not planned.

The organisers as well as the trainees have to be very careful about their behaviour while seeing the different objects. Very often trainees have annoyed the guides and caused a considerable amount of embarrassment to their organisers by their rude behaviour and irrelevant questions. Every trainee must remember that the guides have no axes to grind and that they are showing him round for his own benefit.

Apart from explaining and answering the questions of the trainees, the field trip can be useful if some living demonstrations can be arranged. Thus, for instance, if the trainees are

taken to an Agricultural Farm where they see an improved implement like a Mould Board Plough, they can gain a lot of knowledge about the plough and its utility, if a demonstration in ploughing can be arranged with bullocks actually drawing the plough.

(d) FOLLOW-UP

It is extremely important that there should be a follow-up after the field trip is over; otherwise the value of the trip is lost.

The follow-up can take two forms—

- (i) a thorough discussion on what the trainees had seen. Each trainee may be asked to write a short paper on his observation and submit it to Instructors and the subsequent discussion in the class may proceed on the basis of the recorded observations of the trainees.
- (ii) Secondly, the field trip may be followed up by some actual work programme in which the lessons of the trip can be utilised. For instance, Gram Sevaks and the Extension Officers who have observed improved methods and results elsewhere, may try to apply their knowledge in setting up demonstrations. This would make the field trip completely fruitful.

An illustration on how a field trip should be organised is given below:

GUIDE POINTS

<i>Place of visit</i>	<i>Category of trainees</i>	<i>What to see and note</i>
Central Livestock Research-cum-Breeding Centre, Haringhata.	B.D.Os	A. Dairy Factory B. Dairy Herd C. Poultry Section D. Pig Section and E. Fodder cultivation.

A. Dairy Factory:

To see—

- (i) the milk collection vat,
- (ii) the pasteurising plant (H.T.S.T. Method),
- (iii) automatic bottling machine,
- (iv) storing in tanks and
- (v) storing in cold storage.

B. Dairy Herd:

To see—

the characteristics of the following breeds:—

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| (i) Sahiwal, | (vi) Deshi, |
| (ii) Sindhi, | (vii) Graded deshi, |
| (iii) Haryana, | (viii) Jersey-Haryana cross |
| (iv) Gir, | and |
| (v) Tharparkar, | (ix) Murrah Buff. |

1. Observe the body conformation and note the milk-yield of each breed per lactation.
2. Enquire about the feed-ration of a cow in milk.
3. Note the type of ideal cattle-shed.

C. Poultry Section:

Fowls—

1. See the characteristics of the following:

- (i) White Leghorn
- (ii) R.I.R,
- (iii) B.P.R. Rock,
- (iv) White Sussex,
- (v) New Hampshire and
- (vi) White Plymouth.

2. See different types of rearing:

- (i) Open Pen System,
- (ii) Deep litter system,
- (iii) Hen battery system.

3. Incubation and brooding

- (i) Testing of eggs before setting,
- (ii) Incubating by Mammoth-Incubator,
- (iii) Brooding in brooders—

(a) Electric brooder and

(b) Compost brooder.

4. Enquire about the feed.

5. Enquire about economics of the poultry.

D. Pig Section:

1. See the characteristics of White Yorkshire Pigs

(i) Hog, (ii) Sow and (iii) Piglings.

2. Note the number of young ones per litter

3. Enquire about the feed of the pig,

4. Enquire about the economics of pig rearing,

5. Procedure for disposal of pigs.

E. Fodder Cultivation:

Observe different fodder in cultivation

(i) Barseem,

(ii) Para,

(iii) Caleratres,

(iv) Others.

In this particular trip, before the trainees set out, they had a thorough briefing by the Instructors on what they were expected to observe in the farm. Cyclostyled sheets containing the above-noted instructions were distributed, each group being asked to see a particular section of the farm in rotation. It was also arranged that there would be a guide with each group to show them round and answer their queries. Each trainee was asked to take a note-book with him and enter his detailed observations there. The note-book was subsequently taken from him and examined by the Instructors concerned.

Another point to note was that the trip to the farm was planned immediately after a number of lectures on dairy, poultry and piggery had been delivered by the Instructor, on Animal Husbandry, with appropriate audio-visual aids, to rouse their interest.

A discussion was held with the trainees on what they saw, and to what extent, the trip was fruitful. The trainees were unanimous that they had gained considerable knowledge

about poultry farming and pig rearing. The farm gave them an idea of the model conditions under which cattle should be kept, the different breeds of cattle like Sahiwal, Haryana and Tharparkar, their characteristics, milk-yield, etc.

But they also felt that they should see how an improved variety of cattle could be kept under village conditions by progressive farmers. If they could have gone to some villages, and studied model cattle-sheds and cattle keeping, their knowledge would have been complete.

The main defect of the trip was that the time allotted for it was too short, considering the number of items to be seen and the great distance to be covered on foot.

Apart from making field trips to places where objects can be seen, like the one mentioned above, trainees can also see how institutions work and how group processes like group discussions take place. They can also observe community organisations and how schemes are executed. They can learn the jobs of the Block functionaries by watching how the latter actually work in the fields. These types of observations have been adequately discussed in the next chapter, and need not concern us here.

Suffice it to say, however, that field trips can be organised on all these subjects to enable the trainees to learn through either participant observation or mere observation. In either case, detailed questionnaires or guide points have to be prepared before the trips are arranged.

CHAPTER THREE

LEARNING THROUGH PARTICIPATION

THERE are certain things a man can learn only through experience. Elementary manual skills provide the clearest example. A child learns to walk only after repeated attempts. A cyclist learns to cycle only when he has acquired the physical skill of balancing himself on two wheels. A swimmer learns to swim when he has managed to float on the water. It will be observed that in all these cases, ultimate learning is imparted by the action itself—the repeated attempts at walking, cycling and swimming and it is the learner who has to help himself mostly.

But, while this is true, we expedite the learning process by applying some conventional teaching methods. Because learning through experience involves not only repetitive action, but motivation, as well as observation. It is here that an Instructor can help a person through lectures and other forms of instruction.

In case of other skills like, say, that of a social worker who has to deal with new situations every time, the learning process can be hastened if his general mental level is elevated. For this, his powers of observation and judgement have to be sharpened. He must know how to select relevant facts and form them into organised wholes. He must know how to recognise problems. Insofar as he can do this, his efficiency increases and his further learning from experience is also expedited.

These, however, are factors of the mind, and insofar as his mind has been trained, a social worker is better equipped to tackle and learn from a new situation when he encounters it than a man with an untrained mind.

Mental training to start with, can be imparted in the schools and colleges through scientific methods. From lectures, from the generalised experience of others, from written assignments given by his teacher, a social worker with an academic background, learns to observe carefully, to locate problems, to sift his information, to suggest solutions and finally to evaluate

his performance. But his learning is not complete until he tries to put all this theoretical training he has acquired into practice.

Learning through participation, therefore, is the last stage in the total learning process. It teaches particular skills through direct experience, and it also enables a man to utilise this experience to acquire knowledge in related skills or subjects.

As an illustration of the second way in which learning through participation can be used, we can cite the methods used in basic education. In our basic schools, children learn arithmetic from spinning yarn with the help of the *chharka* or from counting the number of trees, plants or vegetables they have planted. Similarly, from the experience of community organisation, a social worker can learn history, economics, arts and crafts.

One of the most important teaching methods is discussion. But unlike a lecture or a demonstration, a man learns through discussion only by participating in it. That is why we have included discussion under learning through participation.

To the extent that we can sharpen the tools of reasoning and learn how to organise our thinking in discussion, we can expedite our learning process. It is just what we have discussed adequately in this chapter.

Apart from discussions, workshops and camps have also been included in this section. In workshops, a variety of teaching methods are combined to drive home knowledge on a particular subject. In training camps, apart from learning through different teaching methods, a person gains considerably through the process of living a community life in the camp itself. But in both these cases, the main emphasis is on learning through participation.

Section I

DISCUSSION

Group discussion is probably as old as man himself as a social being. Throughout the ages, whenever men have got

together in fields and forests, in caves and houses, in streets and market squares, they have exchanged their thoughts with one another. Their topics of discussion might have been the weather, or scandal or clan feuds; or perchance religion and politics, literature and the arts. The discussions might have been informal and taken the form of unplanned conversation or they might have been highly formal and planned beforehand. Some of the world's great systems of philosophy and religion seemed to have originated this way. Witness, the discourses of Socrates and Plato, of the great conferences of early Buddhists and Christians and the discussions of the Vedic seers in the forests.

The basic reason for group discussion is simple enough. But the question with which we are concerned here, is, what is the utility of group discussion as a teaching method? Many educators seem to feel that people acquire the knowledge they seek, better and in a more lasting and meaningful way, if they can converse about it with others. Through discussion, a group of adults can explore a subject and find a level of working and talking that has meaning for them. And they can obtain satisfaction through the excitement of achievement at any age if the goal is considered worthy of the labour it entails.

A poem can have many meanings, a world crisis a multitude of causes, a social problem a variety of solutions. When the learner is exposed to the range of ideas that can be brought to bear on any subject by the members of a discussion group, that subject is enhanced and broadened. Rather than a single point of view, he has many to examine, to compare with his own, to accept or reject. The mental exercise is stimulating. A mind cannot remain completely closed when its contents are shared.

Some people admit that although they genuinely want to learn, it takes a group to jolt them out of their mental laziness. Once they have committed themselves and have assumed some responsibility for a group by becoming a member of it, they cannot let the group down. Thus a feeling of membership in the group, added to their initial motivation, produces a high order of preparation.

Few experiences so effectively develop a lively, and conti-

ning interest in a public problem as does earnest and thoughtful discussion in a small group. It urges the individual to do serious and purposeful reading.

Moreover, discussion clarifies as well as enriches the participant's thinking. The confusion or error in an individual's thinking about a problem, is peculiar to himself. It can seldom be removed by a public speaker who cannot address himself to the individual, but must deliver a broadside of information and argument at the audience as a whole. In discussion, on the other hand, a person must state and defend his views. If he is in error, the group will set him right. If he is confused, the necessity of stating his views will force him to think more clearly.

Discussion also develops an attitude of objectivity which is desirable in itself.

Lastly, it has been established by the psychologists that an individual learns best when he participates in the learning process itself. The scope of doing this in lectures is limited. If he retains 10 per cent of what he has heard in a lecture, he is likely to retain at least 50 per cent of a discussion in which he has actively participated himself.

Group discussions, however, suffer from certain defects. Where primary knowledge of basic ideas is lacking, discussion cannot produce fruitful results. It then becomes a pooling of ignorance rather than a pooling of wisdom. If the size of the group is too large, effective participation is not possible. In conferences and big meetings, discussion often becomes fruitless, irrelevant and frustrating. If a non-controversial issue is being discussed in which most members agree, group discussion cannot be very useful.

But with all these limitations, group discussion remains a highly useful method of teaching. In community development particularly, where we have to deal with adults, whether literate or illiterate, the discussion method is preferable to the lecture method in most cases.

TYPES OF DISCUSSION

There are, on the whole, two main categories of group discussion: (a) discussion in large groups and (b) discussion in small groups.

Conferences and large business meetings are primarily examples of the first type. Symposia, panel discussions, seminars, syndicate studies and workshops are examples of the second type, although they contain some elements of the large group discussions also.

Big group discussions like conferences and meetings, theoretically provide scope for everyone to participate, but shyness, limited time, and other factors make it impossible for everyone in a meeting, say, of one hundred or more, to participate. Either the chairman dominates or only a few people talk. In Government conferences, most of the talking is usually done by the chairmen themselves. The lower-grade officers fail to open their mouths out of awe of the higher level officers and particularly the chairman.

These meetings and conferences may be all right from the administrative standpoint, but as a teaching method they are practically useless. Moreover, they cannot be called group discussion in a proper sense because, most of the members are unknown to one another and do not develop that affinity, mutual interest, and community of purpose which characterise a group. We should, therefore, exclude large meetings and conferences from our study.

SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION

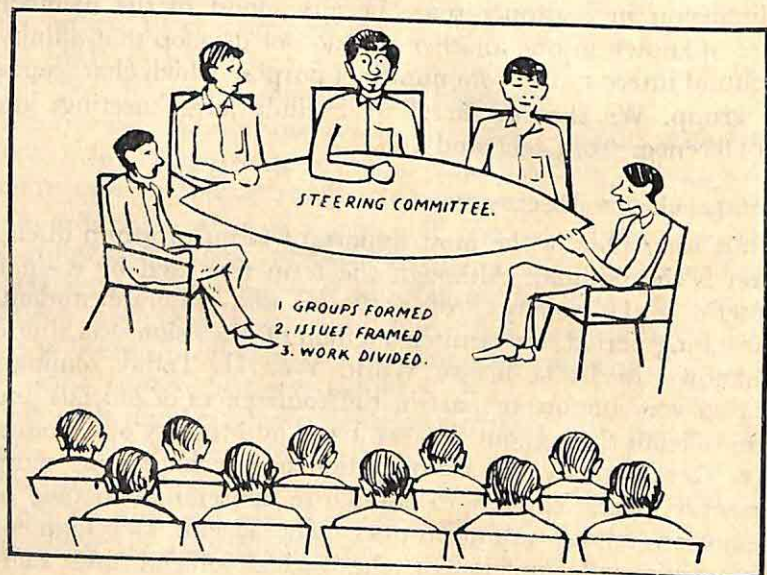
Seminar: One of the most important forms of group discussion is the seminar. Although the term was used by a small coterie of University Professors and post-graduate students for a long period, the seminar method of discussion was almost unknown in India before World War II. Today seminars play a very important part in the conferences of officials and non-officials throughout the country. The Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation has perhaps done more than any other Ministry to popularise the seminar method of discussion among administrators. The several Development Commissioners' Conferences, the various official and non-official camps which are held throughout the country at all levels, bear eloquent testimony to the seminar method. This method has elements of both large and small group discussions in it.

At first all the people attending a seminar meet in a large

group to decide upon the specific subjects of discussion and the issues. This is known as the 'Plenary Session'. Where the subject has been decided beforehand, the large group in its plenary session, decides on the issues which are to be discussed. The whole body is then broken up into a number of small groups, each group with a chairman and a recorder. Sometimes of course, after the small groups have met separately the chairman and the recorder are elected by the small group members.

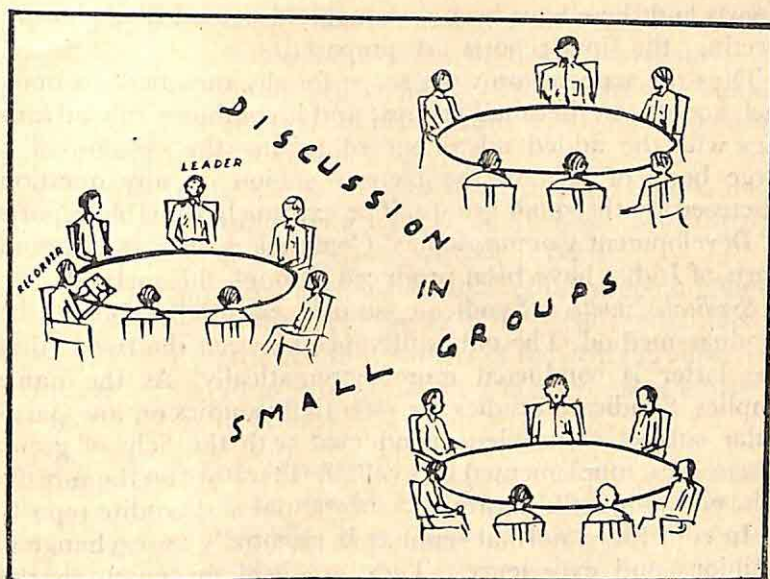
In their separate meetings, the small groups may discuss the specific issues allotted to them; or they may discuss all the issues as decided by the plenary session or its 'steering committee'. Each group prepares a report on the basis of its discussions and then each report is presented to the general body when the groups meet again in another plenary session.

SEMINAR

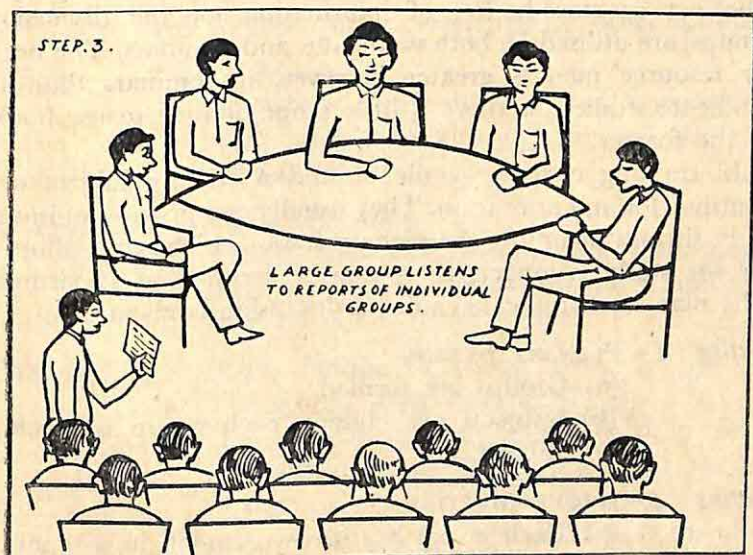


Step 1. MEETING IN PLENARY SESSION

A seminar may have two or more plenary sessions depending on the period for which the seminar is held. After the group leaders in the final plenary session have read their



Step 2. SMALL GROUP DISCUSSING



MEETING AGAIN IN PLENARY SESSION

reports and these have been thoroughly discussed by the entire meeting, the final reports are prepared.

Thus the seminar provides scope for shy members to open their mouths in the small groups; and it combines this advantage with the added advantage of having the opinion of a large body of men in the plenary session on any question discussed by the small groups. The extremely valuable reports of Development Commissioners' Conferences, held in different parts of India, have been produced through this method.

Syndicate studies: Syndicate studies essentially follow the seminar method. The only difference between the two is that the latter is conducted more systematically. As the name implies, Syndicate Studies are essentially studies on any particular subject or problem, conducted with the help of group discussions, supplemented by available literature on the subject. The end product is naturally a substantial and erudite report.

In contrast, a normal seminar is essentially an exchange of opinions and experiences. They are held for much shorter periods than syndicate studies and necessarily the scope of using books and carrying out elaborate studies supplemented by opinions and views, is limited. The resource men, i.e. people who act as store-houses of information for the discussion groups, are utilised by both syndicates and seminars. The need for resource men is greater however, in seminars than in syndicate studies, as there is little scope or time to use books in the former.

In training centres, syndicate studies on any subject can continue for an entire term. They usually comprise a minimum of 12 sittings including the plenary session. If the time allotted for the study is longer, there can be more than 12 sittings. The plan for a typical syndicate discussion is given below:

Sitting 1 – PLENARY SESSION

- (a) Groups are formed,
- (b) Subjects are chosen, each group is given a subject.

Sitting 2 – GROUP MEETING

- (a) Each group has its own session in a separate place.
- (b) The group elects a leader, a recorder, a black-

board member and one observer. The observer would be a different person each day.

- (c) A detailed break-up of the subject is made and an outline for future discussion sessions is drawn up.
- (d) Each member of the group is assigned a sub-topic (as per break-up of subject) for intensive study and for writing a paper.
- (e) The discussion outline is drawn up and handed to the Type Section for cyclostyling and distributed to members of the other groups. Thus all groups get a copy of each other's plan for discussion.

Sitting 3 – GROUP MEETING

Each group meets separately and discusses the 'discussion plans' drawn up by the other groups.

Sitting 4 – PLENARY SESSION

- (a) Each group comments on the discussion plans drawn up by other groups.
- (b) Revised plans drawn up for other groups.

Sitting 5 – GROUP MEETING

Literature distributed to each member for study and for writing paper on the topic allotted to him.

Sittings 6 & 7 – GROUP MEETINGS

The groups may or may not meet during these sessions. Individual members utilise the time by reading and writing.

Sittings 8, 9, 10 & 11 – GROUP MEETINGS

- (a) The groups meet separately.
- (b) One or more group members in a sitting read out before the group the paper assigned to them.
- (c) After discussion in each sitting on members' papers, a part of the group report is compiled.
- (d) The total report is compiled after the 11th

sitting, cyclostyled and distributed to other groups.

Sitting 12 – GROUP MEETING

Groups meet separately to discuss the reports of other groups.

Sittings 13 & 14 – FINAL PLENARY SESSION

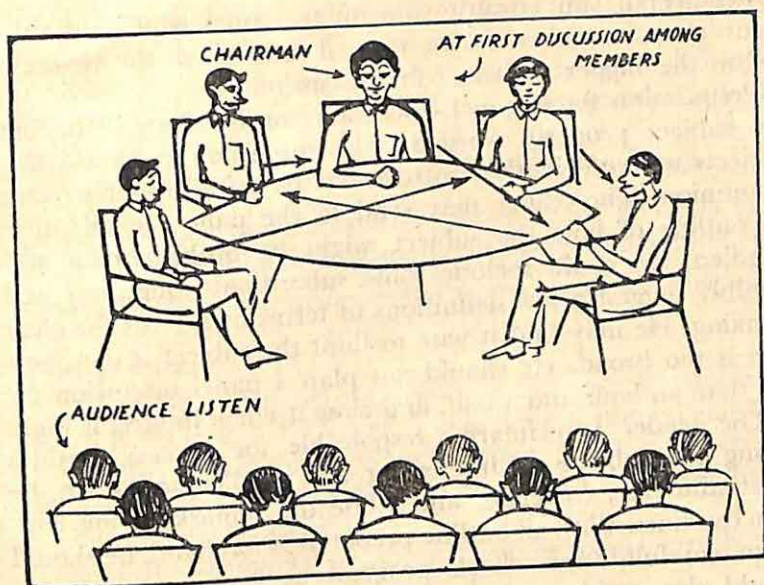
- (a) Group reports are read out and commented upon by all.
- (b) Final report compiled.

PANEL DISCUSSION

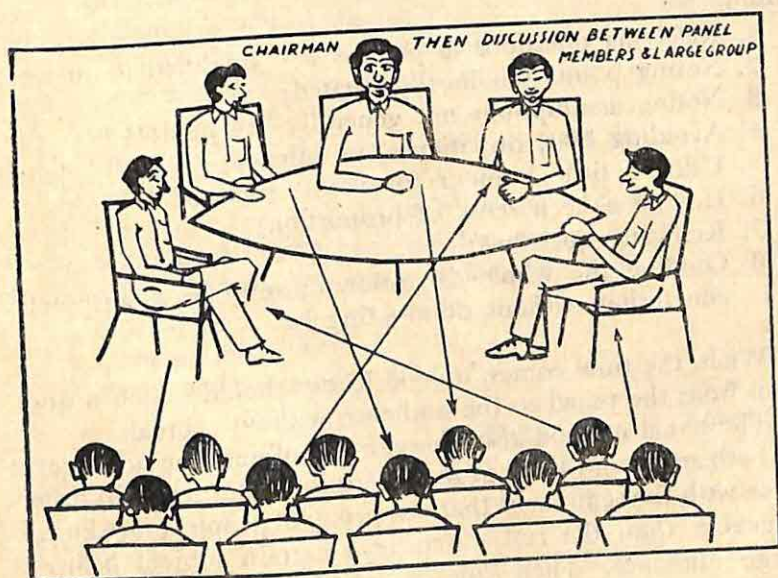
In all Community Development Institutions, the panel method of discussion is increasing in popularity. Panel discussion is an exchange of information and ideas among the participants, about 5 to 6 in number, in the nature of informal conversation on a certain subject in front of a large listening group. The panel members are usually seated round a table in a semi-circle facing the audience. The discussion is carried on among the members under the guidance of a chairman.

The main characteristic of the panel method of discussion is that it is informal conversation and it goes on in the form of a dialogue among the members constituting the panel. The subject may be thought out beforehand by the members, but not rigidly prepared or written down. In any case, panel members should not read out prepared speeches.

The chairman by cleverly directing his questions from one member of the panel to another, keeps the conversation going all the time. For instance, if the subject under discussion is 'Panchayati Raj in Practice', he can ask member 'A' who may be from Orissa, 'Now Mr Mohanty! What is your experience regarding resources for Panchayats in Orissa?' Mr Mohanty may start off, with his personal experience in Orissa, the schemes the Orissa Government have instituted, and so on. He may be interrupted by another member if he makes a controversial statement or the chairman may ask a second member, say from Bihar about his experience on the same subject. Thus the discussion rolls on and the chairman gives scope to panel members to speak, keeping an eye on the time. After the discussion has gone on, say for 30 to 35 minutes,



Step 1. PANEL DISCUSSION



Step 2. PANEL DISCUSSION

the chairman can adroitly sum up the issues which the different panel members have framed and then throw them before the bigger audience for discussion.

Preparation for a panel discussion consists first, in having the subject properly worded. The discussion is best when subjects are sufficiently controversial to bring about a clash of opinion. The leader may send to the panel, in advance, an outline of how the subject might be broken down and handled. He could include some subordinate questions and possibly suggest a few definitions of terms as a basis for clear thinking. He may find it wise to limit the subject if the question is too broad. He should not plan a panel discussion for less than an hour and a half, and close it when interest is high.

The leader is primarily responsible for success. Besides giving the subject an interesting and challenging start, he must stimulate, correlate, and guide the remarks along constructive lines. With an outline prepared beforehand, he should listen carefully and check progress at least mentally. He should also avoid speaking too often and encourage the attitude of enquiry. Other guides for a good panel discussion leader are:

1. Referring questions to persons best qualified to answer;
2. Noting points too hastily treated;
3. Noting assumptions not generally accepted;
4. Avoiding bias, impatience, or offence;
5. Using a little humour to avoid tenseness;
6. Having a keen sense of proportion;
7. Restating questions;
8. Guiding the whole discussion adroitly to a purposeful conclusion without dominating it.

When the time comes, a good leader should switch a question from the panel to the audience without a break.

The panel method also, therefore, combines the advantages of both small and large group discussions: But its main difference with the seminar is that one group of people, more knowledgeable than the rest, discusses a certain subject before a large audience. Their knowledgeable discussion helps the chairman to frame the issues and then the bigger group can

participate. Subjects which call for specialised types of experience and knowledge like 'Working in Panchayats', 'Seed Saturation', 'Drawing up and executing the Agricultural Production Plan', etc. are amenable to the panel method of discussion.

A plan of typical panel discussion is given below:

CLASS — Orientation course (consisting of Block Development Officers, Extension Officers and non-officials).

SUBJECT — How to increase the resources of Panchayats?

PREPARATION—

- (i) selection of panel members (in this case, 2 experienced B.D.Os, 2 A.E.Os and 2 experienced non-officials).
- (ii) distribution of handouts among panel members and members of the audience regarding the procedure of the 'Panel discussion'.
- (iii) initial thinking on the subject by panel members.

Discussion Proper:

	<i>Time</i>
1. (a) Chairman states importance of problem and scope of discussion,	} 5 minutes
(b) introduces panel members	
2. Panel members, one by one state main facts of the problem	10 "
3. On chairman's request members start discussion among themselves	15 "
4. Chairman focusses attention on the various solutions submitted by panel members and offers them to the audience for general discussion	5 "
5. General discussion	10 "
6. Chairman's summing up	5 "
Total	50 minutes

Symposium:

In a symposium too, a small group of people face a larger group. But the members of a symposium, unlike panel mem-

bers, make a number of set speeches either giving different opinions on one topic or different aspects of the same topic, such as uses of atomic energy. The speakers are usually experts in the subjects on which they talk. The audience have the privilege of listening to a number of authorities in close succession on a particular subject.

Obviously, the subjects to be chosen for symposia are much more technical or intellectual than the subjects under panel discussion. There can be symposia on subjects like 'Administrative Intelligence', 'Five Year Plans', 'Co-operative Farming', etc., which can be discussed by specialists only.

Another difference with the panel is that in the symposium, audience participation is not obligatory. In fact, the subject may be too technical for the audience to participate effectively.

In a good symposium, although the speakers come fully prepared to deliver a number of set speeches, they can keep a part of their talk flexible to focuss attention on what others say. Thus a typical symposium would be as follows:

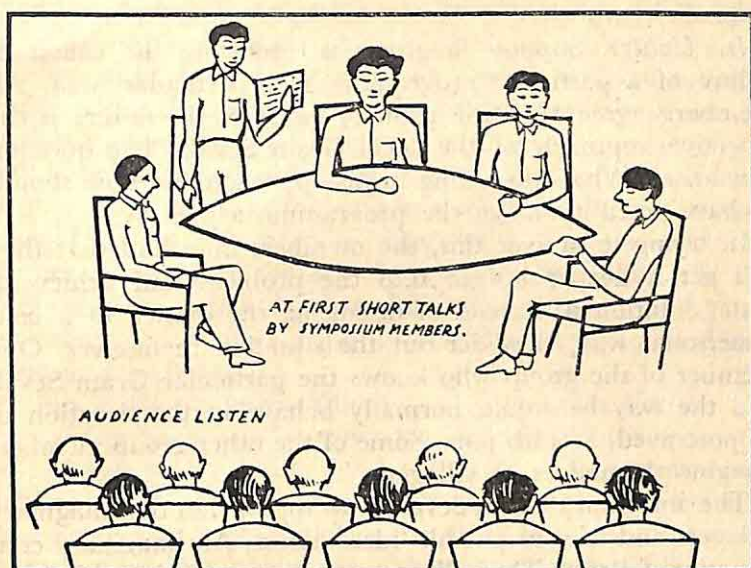
CLASS — Orientation Course

SUBJECT — National and local planning.

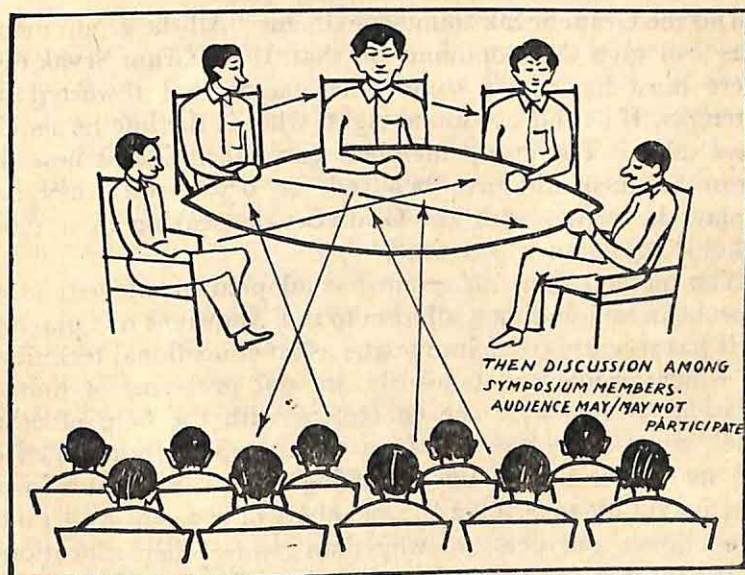
PREPARATION — (i) Selection of 'Symposium' speakers,
(ii) Preparation of speeches

Discussion proper:

	<i>Time</i>
1. Chairman's Introduction:	
(a) States scope of discussion	} 5 minutes
(b) Introduces symposium members	
2. (a) First speaker states problem and gives solution	10 "
(b) Second speaker states problems and gives solution	10 "
(c) Third speaker states problems and gives solution	10 "
3. Discussion among the members of the symposium	10 "
4. Summing up by the chairman	5 "
Total	50 minutes



Step 1. SYMPOSIUM



Step 2. SYMPOSIUM

ROLE PLAYING

Its Utility: Suppose a group is discussing the causes of failure of a particular programme in a particular area. All members agree that the primary cause of the failure is the defective approach of the local Gram Sevak. The question now arises: What was wrong in his approach and how should he have acted to make the programme a success?

In trying to answer this, the members may find that they will get a deeper insight into the problem and achieve a better solution if, instead of discussing the matter in a cold impersonal way, they act out the situation themselves. One member of the group who knows the particular Gram Sevak and the way he would normally behave in the situation to be portrayed, acts his part. Some of the other group members imagine themselves as villagers.

The imaginary Gram Sevak now approaches the imaginary villagers and tries to put his 'idea' across. An imaginary conversation follows. The villagers do not appreciate his idea, in spite of the Gram Sevak's repeated attempts. After a few minutes of acting the players stop. The group now reassembles to discuss what they have seen and heard.

Did the Gram Sevak sound convincing? All the group members can give their opinions on that. If the Gram Sevak did, there must have been some other factor that thwarted his attempts. If he did not sound right, what is the line he should have taken? The group members can either discuss how the Gram Sevak should have behaved, or better still, they can replay the scene, with the Gram Sevak speaking in a more convincing manner this time.

The method that this group has adopted in understanding a problem and finding a solution to it, is known as role playing.

It has recently come into vogue as an educational technique in which people spontaneously act out problems of human relations and analyse the enactment with the help of other role players and observers. Its growing popularity as a teaching method is due to the absorbing interest it creates in all and its ability to involve the members of a group in a much more direct and personal way than many other educational methods. But these are by no means the most important reasons for using role playing.

For one thing, it can bring out certain data and insight regarding human behaviour and relations, in a way which no other teaching method can. Written records or lectures may provide useful data and stretch the boundaries of experience, but they cannot provide the group with direct experience of what is being talked about. In role playing, a person does not only hear about a problem; he lives through it by acting it out. He may also practise what he has learnt until he becomes a part of it himself. In the example cited above, group members were not only trying to understand a problem; they were also endeavouring to improve their method of approach to villagers.

A Block Development Officer, an Extension Officer or even a Gram Sevak can improve his skill in conducting meetings through role playing. By creating imaginary situations, extension workers can experiment with their behaviour, in the presence of co-learners, make mistakes and effect improvements in their behaviour without hurting the feelings of others. Apart from improving existing behaviour or methods, role playing provides an excellent laboratory, under controlled conditions, for trying out new ideas and plans of action.

Another great advantage of role playing is that it helps us to broaden our understanding of other people, to see things from the point of view of the person on the other side of the table. This happens particularly if we give people roles opposite to or different from their normal roles. If a B.D.O., who has a low opinion of the effectiveness of S.E.Os, is asked to play the role of an S.E.O in a role-playing session, he may find, in trying to defend his position, that he is discovering new arguments from within himself in favour of the S.E.Os. Although this is an imaginary situation, it may produce a lasting effect on his opinions later in real life.

The teaching value of role playing lies in its ability to bring to the surface, mental reactions and feelings, of which we have a vague awareness. We may advance arguments on the spur of the moment, in favour of a view we do not normally support; we may react, while role playing, in a way we are not normally accustomed to react. This may produce a new learning-situation for us.

Finally, role playing is the most interesting method of

starting a group discussion. The primary teaching value of role playing, for the group as a whole, lies in the analytical discussion which follows the acting. Not only can the entire group, including the role players themselves, analyse their attitudes and actions, but they can do so without endangering any one's self-respect and status in the group.

HOW TO ROLE PLAY?

The technique of role playing is based on our natural aptitude to imagine ourselves in a certain situation. If a person is given certain broad hints about the situation, the rest can be left to his imagination. He can work out his own reactions on the spur of the moment. In this, role playing differs from ordinary drama.

If we rehearse in detail before role playing, what we are going to say, we shall destroy spontaneity. We may end up by making stereotyped statements which everybody knows.

While, therefore, role players should know what is expected of them they should on no account be told what to say. They should have a great deal of latitude in interpreting how a character with given general characteristics and attitudes will act under specific circumstances. Too much rehearsal is, therefore, not desirable.

Like most dramatic presentations, role playing needs a director who is responsible for a certain amount of initial planning and who helps the actors and other group members to become emotionally involved with the situation to be acted out. The director's role is mainly concerned with helping the actors to be spontaneous in presenting the characters they are portraying, in helping the observers to analyse the situation and behaviour presented in the role playing scene.

The steps in the role-playing process are:

- (a) defining the problem,
- (b) defining the roles,
- (c) casting the characters,
- (d) briefing the actors and observers,
- (e) enacting the scene,
- (f) cutting the action,

- (g) discussing and analysing the situation and behaviour of actors and observers,
- (h) making plans for further testing of the insight gained.

Defining the problem: The situation chosen for portrayal should be one with which all the members are thoroughly familiar; otherwise, it will be difficult for them to portray it. The problem should be clear and specific and not too complex. Moreover, it should also be meaningful to the group, so that acting it out will contribute to the goals the group has set.

Defining the roles: The group should agree as to the general characteristics they want represented in each role. In some cases, it may be sufficient merely to define the attitude the role players will take towards the situation being enacted, while in other cases, a little more detail may be necessary.

Casting the characters: If the director or planners are not well acquainted with the group members and do not know how they would feel about taking roles, it is probably wiser to ask for volunteers or suggestions from the members during the meeting than to assign parts in advance. It would actually be better if the responsibility for defining and casting characters is taken by the total group.

But whatever method is used for casting, no one should ever be asked to take a role unless he is definitely willing to do so. If a role has unfavourable characteristics, it may be well for the leader to take it on himself to get things moving.

When dealing with beginners, it may be wise to start them with roles in which they feel at home and confident. Soon however, they should be assigned roles which will help them extend their perceptions and insights.

Briefing the role players: After the characters have been cast, they have to be briefed. But this briefing should only give them some idea about the roles they are to represent. It should not tell them what they are going to say or do in the action.

If a situation calls for hidden motives on the part of the role players, the briefing may be done privately. Each role player can be separately told his role and the hidden motives he is supposed to have. He should not know the motives of

others. This would make the situation almost as real as life itself, where people have to discover each other's motives through their behaviour and speech.

It might be helpful to ask the group to list the specific behaviour, the underlying forces and emotional reactions they will look for.

Enacting the scene: After everyone has been briefed, the players may be seated round a table, facing the audience. The director can launch them with a few remarks. But thereafter the role players should work out their responses as they go along so that they will be spontaneous.

When to cut the scene: A common tendency is to let the scene go on too long. Generally, role playing should be cut when: (a) enough behaviour has been exhibited so that other group members can analyse the problem, (b) when the group, as a whole, can imagine what would happen if the action were continued, (c) when the players have reached a dead-end because they have somehow been miscast and misled and (d) when there is a natural closing.

Analysing the action: The director must always be alert to see that the discussion reverts to the original problem under study. Sometimes, the players may be asked to comment first on how they were planning to behave if the action continued. This will allow them to set the tone for constructive criticism.

Other group members should try to introduce into the discussion, data about what they saw rather than restricting their comments to opinions about what should and should not have been done. It is important that group members steer clear of all comments that evaluate the acting ability of the players or the convincingness of the players' interpretation of their roles. The discussion should be focussed on what the enacted scene can contribute to their understanding of the problem they were trying to solve.

Planning for further action: If practising skill is the main purpose of the group, there is a greater need for replaying than if the goal is purely to gain insight. Replayng may be done by:

- (1) the same or different players going over the same scene, but making the changes recommended in the discussion;

- (2) the same or different players trying to play out a probable scene following the one just enacted, illustrating how the recommendations might change the consequences.

If the diagnosis of the problem opens up an entirely new way of working out things, the group might try different role-playing situations to see if their generalisations hold true in more than one specific case.

The director might suggest study or other follow-up action that the group can do to explore the problem further. Or the group may plan to hold a future discussion on other aspects of the problem.

Groups which appear hesitant about role playing will quickly learn to feel at ease by starting with some simple situation. That is why, when role playing is tried for the first time, the situation selected should be simple enough to allow group members to discuss it profitably. Take for instance, a problem like—'How to conduct a staff meeting at Block headquarters'. Most of the workers who work in Community Development Blocks, have attended staff meetings. They can easily portray a staff meeting, without any briefing whatsoever, while the others act their own roles. They can discuss any subject which they normally discuss in Block staff meetings before the bigger group. After the discussion has proceeded for some time, it can be stopped and the other group members who have not taken part in the discussion, can comment on the discussion-process including the behaviour of the chairman and other members. This kind of role playing is very simple. The next step would be to replay the scene by asking some members to play the roles of difficult members like the 'monopoliser', the 'joker' or the 'silent member'. It would then be up to the chairman to control these people without hurting their feelings.

Other situations can also be tried. A problem of personnel management in the Blocks can be portrayed by different members taking the roles of Gram Sevaks, Extension Officers, Clerical staff and Block Development Officers.

One of the chief difficulties in introducing the role-playing method, is that adults sometimes feel reluctant to act before

other members. It would, therefore, be better to introduce role playing in a new group step by step as suggested above.

It is important that group members have the experience of discovering that they can explore a problem, analyse its causes and work out solutions either through changing the situation or their behaviour.

WHERE TO USE ROLE PLAYING

In spite of its obvious advantages, role playing has its limitations also. For one thing it cannot be used except in a limited number of learning situations. It is most effective in problems which cannot be solved or understood through role playing.

We should not, therefore, be over-enthusiastic in using role playing as a solution to all learning problems, in our training centres. Even in human relationship problems, a group has to know sufficiently about the problem before it can portray it. Study and fact-finding may, therefore, have to precede role playing in some cases. Besides, unless one has some inkling of the type of life or behaviour that he has been asked to portray, he cannot do it. An industrial worker, working in a coal-field, for instance, cannot play the role of a Gram Sevak, if he has no knowledge whatever of a Gram Sevak or the rural situation in which a Gram Sevak operates.

Even if a man is conversant with the character and the situation he is depicting, he may be unable to do it, unless he has some histrionic ability. He may be able to act—if anything he says or does is taken as acting—but his portrayal may be so poor that it will not have any teaching value for the group. His skill may improve with constant practice, but his basic limitations to express himself in another role may never be completely removed.

But as community development abounds with situations where human relations and human behaviour play an important part, role playing should assume greater importance in the teaching methods which we can use in our institutions. Through these methods, we can within a very short period, improve the extension skills of our workers and change their opinions and attitudes in some spheres profoundly.

DEBATE

It is doubtful if a debate can be called a group discussion in its strict sense. There is hardly any give and take, as in a normal discussion. On the contrary, in a debate, members have to take up and maintain sharply opposed viewpoints. The performance of the speakers in a debate is judged usually by a panel of judges and rarely by the audience. The audience, therefore, have a passive role to play in a debate.

A debate develops the powers of delivery, elocution, acumen and wit. It is a popular form of extra-curricular activity in schools and colleges where the qualities mentioned above, are the cherished goals for each student.

But the efficacy of its use in training institutions for community development workers is doubtful. Our main purpose in such institutions, is to develop understanding of each other's points of view rather than powers of elocution or wit. In this, debates fail as they often rouse emotions which make understanding more difficult. We can, of course, ask a trainee, if we are organising a debate, to take the viewpoint opposed to the one he normally holds. In defending these viewpoints, he would have to find out arguments from somewhere and this may subsequently influence his attitude and develop his understanding of an opposite viewpoint. But if this is really so, why not use role playing which is a more attractive method?

BUZZ SESSION

Buzz session is another method of discussion whereby a large group is divided in small groups for discussion of specific problems for a limited period, say from 5 to 10 minutes.

Buzz groups are particularly useful in organising questions after lectures. The lecturer himself can ask his class to form into small groups with a spokesman for each group. The members of different groups can discuss the lecture and each group can list a number of questions that they intend to ask the lecturer. After about 10 minutes the class can re-assemble and the lecturer can ask the spokesman of each group to write out the questions for his group. Instead of reading them out, each group leader may also send slips of paper to the lecturer with the questions listed thereon. The lecturer can

cut out superfluous questions and answer a number of different questions.

Buzz sessions can thus lead to better utilisation of a lecture, through systematic questioning.

BRAINS TRUST

This form of discussion came into vogue during World War II. A group of experts on different subjects, under a chairman, sit round a table facing the audience. The audience can send slips asking questions on different subjects. The chairman refers each question, according to the subject it comes under, to the specialist on the subject. A Brains Trust is, therefore, half-way between a symposium and a panel. While there are no set speeches, there is also no free flow of discussion between the members of the Brains Trust and the audience. The use of this sort of discussion in training institutions is limited.

HOW TO ORGANISE DISCUSSION

It would be obvious from the foregoing that the basic unit in effective group discussion, is the small group. The question now arises—how can the utility of small group discussions be maximised? The first principle is to limit the size of the group. If the number of members is less than 5, the group would be too small and the exchange of experience among a very small number of people, may not substantially add to or enrich one's existing knowledge. On the other hand, if the number of members is more than 20, the group loses the good points of small group discussion. Shy members become afraid to talk. Voluble members do most of the talking. The size of the group should, therefore, be between 5 at the minimum and up to 15 at the maximum.

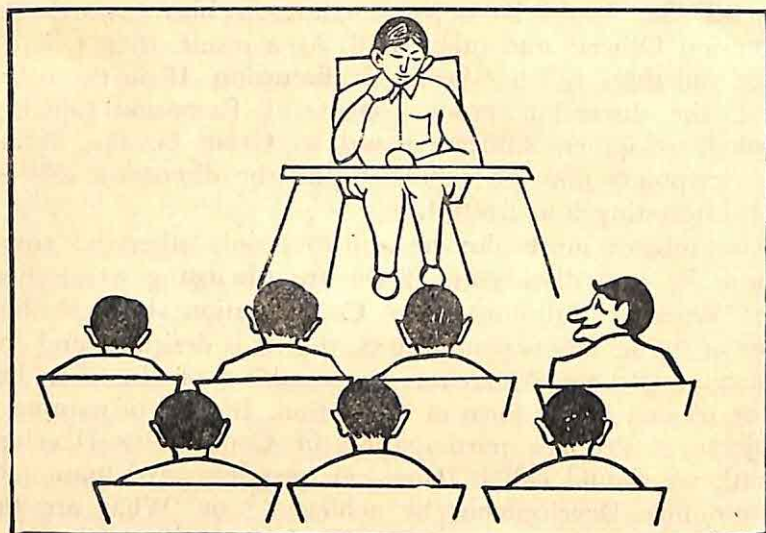
The members should represent diverse interests and viewpoints, but should have a common level of understanding. While they may have a common interest in the subject to be discussed, they should approach it from different standpoints. Otherwise discussion would not be fruitful. If, for instance, we are discussing a question like 'How administrative co-ordination can be achieved among the Block staff' and the members are B.D.Os., it is very likely that most of

the B.D.Os. would have some common bias towards the Extension Officers and other staff. As a result, they will all agree and there will not be much discussion. If on the other hand, the discussion group consists of Extension Officers, Block Development Officers as well as Gram Sevaks, different viewpoints may be expressed and the discussion will be both interesting and fruitful.

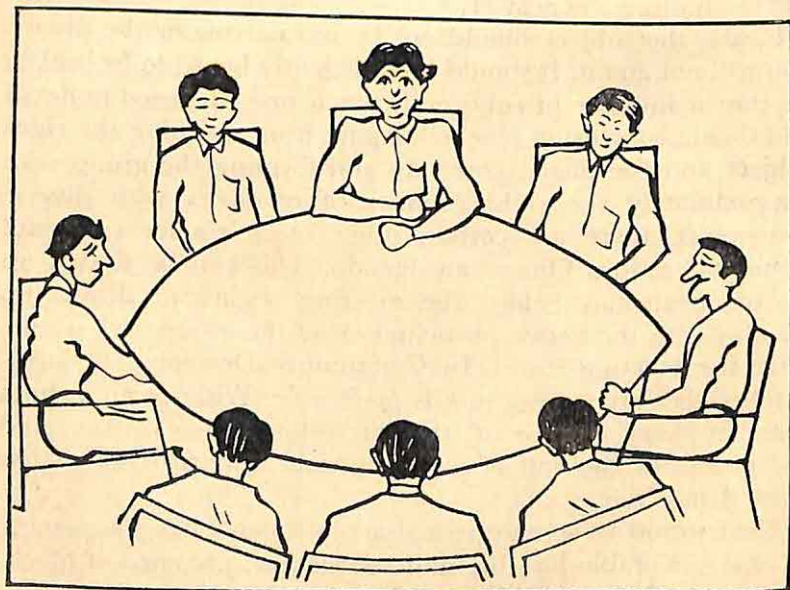
The subject must also be controversial, otherwise there cannot be any discussion. If we are discussing a question like 'Whether Administrative Co-ordination is desirable' most of the members would agree that it is desirable and the matter ends there. Moreover, every subject of discussion has to be framed in the form of a question. Instead of naming a subject as 'People's participation in Community Development', we should call it 'How can people's participation in Community Development be achieved?' or 'What are the best ways of achieving people's participation?' or 'Is there people's participation?' This would direct the attention of a group to a specific subject and the subsequent discussion will aim at finding an answer.

Lastly, the subject should not be too narrow or the discussion will not go on. It should be sufficiently broad to be broken up into a number of sub-points, each one discussed in detail and then a conclusion reached. Apart from choosing the right subject and framing it correctly and forming the group with approximately the right number of members with diverse viewpoints, there are certain other requisites for successful group discussion. One is an agenda. This can be drawn up by the chairman before the meeting begins, or drawn up by him with the active participation of the group as a whole, after the meeting starts. In Community Development Institutions, the latter procedure is preferable. Without an agenda there is every chance of the discussion going astray and the group, at the end of the discussion, may feel that it has wasted its time.

Next would be some physical arrangements like the placing of chairs, suitable lighting and ventilation, presence of black-board, etc. It is a well-known fact that in a group discussion, the members should be able to see one another. The facilities of communication among them build up cohesion. The



Step 1. SITTING IN ROWS NOT CONDUCTIVE TO DISCUSSION



Step 2. SITTING IN A CIRCLE CREATES CORRECT DISCUSSION ATMOSPHERE

chairs should, therefore, be arranged in a circle or a semi-circle. If they are arranged in rows with the leader's chair facing the other rows, it will become more of a lecture than a discussion.

Lastly, and probably the most important point is, that every group must have a good leader. The qualities required of a good leader are manifold. In fact, the man who possesses such qualities may seem to be an ideal person. While this cannot be true, it is certainly a fact that a good leader is rare. Either there is a tendency on the part of the chairman to monopolise the discussion himself, or he is too weak to control the members or lead the discussion to any fruitful conclusion.

QUALITIES OF A CHAIRMAN

The following are some of the qualities that should be noted when selecting a chairman:

In the first place, he must have knowledge of the subject and personality to command the respect of others.

He must be a genial, friendly person, courteous and considerate to the members of his group and genuinely interested in them as individuals. No matter how annoying the members may be the chairman must remain imperturbably good humoured, if he is to keep conversation on a level where profitable exchange of ideas is possible.

Towards the ideas presented in the discussion, the chairman's attitude should be one of strict impartiality. He cannot afford to enforce his position as leader by becoming a party to the argument. Usually he should even avoid revealing what his own opinion is on the question under discussion. His main job is to assist the group to explore problems thoroughly and lead the group to a conclusion. The question may be asked here—'What should the leader do if he finds that the group is reaching a wrong conclusion? Should he not try to impress upon them the right conclusion?' As an example of this, instances may be cited where groups which are discussing, let us say, 'The efficacy of extension methods', have come to the conclusion that they are, on the whole, ineffective. The next stage in the groups' thinking would be that extension, on the whole, is an impracticable principle

and nothing can be achieved through it. Should a discussion leader, whose group has reached such conclusions, permit the group to get away with them unchallenged? Is it not his duty in a Community Development Institution, which is trying to inculcate proper understanding of extension methods, to lead the group to a different conclusion? The answer is—yes; but the way the chairman should do this, would be through persuasion and not coercion. He can request the group to examine the facts more carefully and to see whether sufficient facts have been examined to warrant such a negative conclusion, to scrutinise whether an interpretation of the facts is correct. If, after all this, the group reaches a negative conclusion, the chairman should leave it at that. For the basis of democratic group discussion is that the group should make its own decision, right or wrong. The leader should, on no account, foist his own opinion on the group. He will have done his duty as a good leader if he manages to make the group discuss a certain problem exhaustively with full facts and figures and in a rational manner. A good leader must have the quality of regulating the members without hurting their feelings. Snubbing may be good tactics in political demagogy, but it is a very bad method in group discussion. It should not be resorted to, except with impossible members who are trying to wreck a meeting through sheer egoism and lack of consideration for others.

Self-restraint also occupies a high place among the leader's qualities. The ability to listen to others is a rare quality. In India among literate persons, the tendency is to talk and not to listen. The man who can listen patiently to everyone, sum up what they have said and add a few remarks of his own, has greater leadership qualities than the man who talks.

A good chairman must have a keen sense of humour. In fact, humour, if applied appropriately, can be an effective tool in group discussion. With the help of humour, he can control difficult members without unduly offending them; he can resolve conflicts by lightening the situation and he can make the entire discussion lively. This, of course, is a rare quality.

The leader must also have the capacity to know instinctively whether a discussion is going off at a tangent. He must also

be able to co-ordinate the ideas of individuals who think in different ways.

Last, the chairman should be able to summarise and conclude the discussion. The mode of summing up is important. He should know, of course, when a group is ready for summarising and transition. He should be able to sense this from the bafflement on people's faces and restlessness in their movements.

From all this, it would appear that the cardinal qualities of a chairman, do not lie in his ability to speak himself or in having expert knowledge, but in remaining in the background and allowing every other member to participate fully in the discussion, in guiding the discussion to its proper goal, in continually keeping the discussion going and ending it by able summarising.

FUNCTIONS OF A GOOD CHAIRMAN

His most elementary function is to regulate the discussion in such a way that all members participate equally and without interfering with each other. He is, in short, a traffic officer.

The chairman may also have to begin the discussion if nobody else does so, prevent it from stopping and finally end it by summarising.

TWO SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN GROUP DISCUSSION:

(a) *Forming the agenda:*

The first task that confronts a chairman is to choose the subject and prepare the agenda in consultation with the group. A discussion without an agenda is like a ship without a rudder. The agenda defines the scope of discussion and provides the direction to it.

Now, in the first place, the subject matter of any discussion should be a problem to which the discussion provides the answer. Whenever a group of men have come to discuss something, it has always been some kind of a problem, whether material, political or philosophical, which has been troubling the group for the time being.

The subject matter of discussion today remains very much

the same. It is essentially problem-centred. In community development particularly, there cannot be any discussion unless it is directly related to some problem of village life.

Moreover, as has been pointed out, the problem to be discussed properly, should be based on a question. This would pin-point the issue, limit its scope and prevent rambling.

It is very important that the subject should be framed correctly. This depends on a proper assessment of the main problem. Many experts believe that instead of hastily framing subjects for discussion, some time should be spent by the whole group in locating the problem properly. For instance, a group discussing 'People's Participation' finds that many problems are thrown up, in course of discussion. The group will then have to locate the most important among these problems and frame the subject accordingly. If it finds that two or three problems are of equal importance, the subject should be framed in a broader way to include discussion of all the problems. Thus, for instance, while discussing 'People's Participation' a group discovers that obtaining material contribution from the people is only a part of the problem. It can, of course, decide to discuss this only. In such a case, it can frame the subject matter of discussion as 'How to obtain greater people's contribution'? This would at once direct the discussion to such items as different forms of people's contribution like labour, material and money, the scales of contribution that should be laid down for the poorer sections, etc.

The group may, however, decide to discuss all other aspects of people's participation, viz. (a) adoption of improved practices and extension methods, (b) people's contribution in the form of labour, cash and material, (c) effective functioning of voluntary organisations, (d) the change of attitude of the people towards community development, etc. This would broaden the subject greatly and many issues have to be discussed. To incorporate them all, the subject can be framed as 'To what extent have people accepted Community Development?' or something similar.

Framing the issues correctly is also very important. People can discuss a subject earnestly and find at the end of the discussion that they are as far away from the solution to their

problem as they were at the beginning. Suppose a group of literate villagers led by an erudite school teacher, is discussing a subject like whether Block grants should be used in supporting this or that 'Social Education Centre', draws up an agenda like this: (a) objectives of social education, (b) history of social education in India and (c) our experience with social education.

It will be obvious that while the group may be discussing some important material, this agenda will not furnish them with a solution to their practical problems. A better agenda would be: (a) what are the criteria for recognising a Social Education Centre, (b) whether this or that Centre satisfies the requirement, (c) whether the recurring expenses can be met by the people etc. This agenda is certainly related more to the problem and will provide the group with a basis for solution.

The best way to draw up an agenda would be first to formulate the problem as a question. Thus, for instance, if we are discussing 'Administrative Co-ordination', we should formulate the problem as 'How to achieve better co-ordination?' The next step is to define the problem or any other subsidiary term that requires definition. For instance, the exact meaning of 'co-ordination' should be defined by the group before it proceeds further. Otherwise, different people will mean different things by the word 'co-ordination' and general confusion may result. Similarly, if the group is discussing 'People's participation' or 'Extension', the terms should be clearly defined. The next stage is a description of the facts or symptoms of the problem, if necessary, with a history of the problem. For instance, one can discuss the symptoms of lack of co-ordination, e.g. untimely supplies of seeds, fertilisers, untimely allocation of funds, friction among the different categories of staff etc. The historical trend in Indian Administration may provide some useful material or insight into the matter.

After the different symptoms have been described in detail, the causes of the symptoms can then be discussed threadbare. Then would come solutions to the problem. Many solutions may be suggested. The group may list the solutions in an order of preference, according to its criteria of testing the

solutions. For instance, the solutions for effecting greater co-ordination, can be: (a) streamlining of procedures through government orders, (b) building up the habit on the part of different agencies, of meeting together to discuss problems and evolving common lines of action, and (c) orientation training of officials and non-officials. The group may list orientation training and change of outlook as the most preferable solution. Cultivating the habit of meeting together, may be the next best solution. Achieving co-ordination through government orders may be listed as a last resort, because the first solution and, to some extent, the second are in accordance with extension principles, while achieving co-ordination through government orders, is not.

It may seem superfluous for a group to spend some time on locating the problem. But often a group is conscious only of a vaguely felt difficulty. The difficulty in locating a problem sometimes arises out of this vagueness and the confusion surrounding the meaning of terms. Hence, the terms have to be defined properly as described above.

One further hint about framing the subject matter. It can be framed in the form of a question, in terms of the problem itself, in terms of the specific objectives to be achieved by any solution adopted, or in terms of some particular solution. For instance, if a group is discussing the public health programme under Community Development, it may frame it in terms of a particular public health situation, viz. 'What should be done about inducing people to vaccinate?' This is in terms of a problem. It can also be stated in terms of the objectives: 'How can the health services be made available to all who need them?' or it can be stated in terms of a specific solution. 'Is the mobile medical unit effective?' Discussing the different causes and facts of the problem exhaustively, is a very important item in the discussion process. Without this, the group will not be in a position to discuss the solution.

(b) Difficult members:

Another main headache of a chairman is how to tackle difficult members. There are many types of difficult members in a group. The most common are those who try to dominate the group with their viewpoints and monopolise the dis-

cussions. This type turns up in every training centre. They usually suffer from the complex that they know the last word on the subject being discussed.

Another type is what may be called 'the doubting Thomases'. They are the cynical members. They always talk in negative terms at every meeting and feel that nothing can work.

Then there are the 'distractors'. They constantly break into the group meeting with some irrelevant remark and lead the discussion off the point. They do this either because: (a) they have not been listening to what was going on, (b) they were bored by the discussion, (c) or lastly, they cannot think clearly.

There are some other types of difficult members. The first type may be called 'the jokers'. They have usually nothing substantial to contribute, but they have the gift of humour. So they continually try to cash in with a wisecrack, whenever they get an opportunity.

Then there are the silent members. They may be silent, because they have less experience and knowledge than the others. Or they may have some trouble in expressing themselves properly. Or they may be shy.

Another troublesome member is the one who cannot say anything in less than 10 minutes and would prefer half an hour. Often he is having difficulty in expressing himself. After stating his points, he feels he has not made them clear; so he states them again and again. By the time he finishes, the points have been lost in a maze of words. In one training centre, for instance, there was a trainee who loved to use words like moral rearmament, limitless unfolding of human personality, beautification of soul, ossification of mind and so on. Whenever he had an opportunity, he would come out with these words. Whether their application was relevant or irrelevant, he would make speeches, each consisting of not less than half an hour. Only a strong chairman could suppress such a man.

The technique of conducting a discussion: With the agenda prepared, the chairman now settles down to the business of conducting the discussion. He must, first of all, establish a warm and a friendly atmosphere. His remarks should be brief and informal. They should convey the impression that

he means business and that participation from the members will be encouraged and that he has no intention of dominating the discussion or dictating its procedure.

He can introduce the subject, by skilfully exposing conflicts, which he knows, exist in the group, or he may introduce matters on which agreement can easily be reached at the beginning of the meeting, so as to produce some feeling of unity before conflicts are allowed to appear. He may again introduce the subject by bringing a prepared list of questions to which he can refer whenever the talk seems to be on the wane. He can also begin by giving a brief introduction to the talk himself, maybe with some factual material or some controversial opinions.

The purpose of his introductory remarks, is to stimulate interest in the problem in a few words. People do not think, unless they are disturbed about something. The chairman should help to get them disturbed. Sometimes he may even need a stick of dynamite in the form of a highly explosive idea.

Whether at the beginning of the discussion or later on, questions are the most vital instrument at a chairman's disposal. Actually a chairman must be a master of the art of questioning.

At the beginning of the discussion, the members can speak up in rapid succession, each stating his view, perhaps indicating briefly the reasons why he holds that view. During the exploratory phase, the group may find that the issues are too broad for convenient handling and that it would be desirable to break them down into two or more subordinate points. If so, the first of the subordinate issues becomes the issue to be explored. When discussion of this issue has been carried through to a conclusion, the group returns to exploration of the second subordinate issue and so on.

The main thing in analysing a problem is to observe, describe and classify the facts that are relevant to the problem. In considering solutions, members should be allowed to throw out suggestions freely and, if necessary, wildly. There should not be any curb at this stage. After all the solutions have been thrown out, each proposal has to be tested in respect of the following two items: (a) does the solution provide for this or that difficulty? (b) how does it agree with other solutions?

As the discussion proceeds, it should be possible to divide the ideas presented by the members into three groups. In the first group, would fall ideas on which there is complete agreement. These points of agreements should be formulated clearly and set aside as requiring no further discussion. To return to them continually, as groups often do, is a waste of time.

In the second group would fall those points on which the members are unable to come to any opinion at all, because they lack the information to form one. If the group believes that the information can be obtained, these points should be set aside for discussion at a future date when the information can be made available. To discuss them immediately would serve no purpose.

In the third group would fall those points on which there is difference of opinion. These points of disagreement should be stated clearly, so that they can be taken up in order and thrashed out thoroughly.

The exploratory discussion may, of course, reveal no points of agreement; it may reveal points on which the dearth of information makes the formation of an opinion impossible or it may reveal no points of disagreement. If all members find themselves in complete agreement, the group will, of course, proceed at once to the next issue of the agenda.

Sometimes it may be perfectly clear whether there is disagreement on a particular point. If so, the chairman or some member may put a direct question to the person about whose opinion there is doubt, to make sure where disagreement exists.

After the group has decided the goals of the discussion, it is the chairman's duty to guide the discussion towards these goals and keep it on the topic.

He must also focuss the discussion on particular points. It is not enough that members stick to the general subject under discussion. Their attention must be kept focussed on specific points under consideration at a particular moment.

If the discussion is running smoothly, he should interfere with it as little as possible. It should neither be routed through him nor dependent on his permission. Nor should he as a rule, answer the questions asked of him, but redirect them

to the group as a whole. But if the discussion stops at any point, the chairman should be able, by successful questioning, by restatement of positions and by other techniques, to start the discussion rolling again.

From time to time, the chairman should review the points made, point out the questions overlooked and the information needed and the existing agreements or differences of opinion. He should try to point out the progress made so far and help the group towards the next logical subject.

A real difficulty in an early meeting is the sudden realisation that the main discussion part of the meeting, is almost over and no solution has been reached. If this happens, the leader may say something like this: 'I am afraid we shall have to finish in another fifteen minutes. Let us see what we can pool together out of what has been discussed. What have we agreed on so far?' This would certainly impress upon the members the necessity of reaching decisions and enable the discussion to be directed towards more fruitful ends.

Dealing with difficult members: How does a chairman deal with difficult members? His ability to deal with them will depend on his correctly diagnosing each situation. It helps, of course, if the chairman knows about the members in advance and their needs and interests and points of view.

In dealing with difficult members, it has to be remembered that the chairman must control them in such a way that their feelings will not be ruffled. This is no easy matter and may require considerable tact on his part. Sometimes, with all his tact, he may be unable to avoid hurting people.

Suppose now, a member is trying to monopolise the discussion. Maybe he knows more than the others and his contribution is valuable. Nevertheless, no one should be allowed to run the whole show all by himself. So the chairman, after listening to him politely for some time, can say, 'I think you have made a number of excellent suggestions, Mr so and so. We all appreciate them. Now how about others?' This approach will not hurt the voluble member; on the other hand, he will be elated by the eulogies of the chairman.

He can handle a distracting member by politely asking him the connection between the remarks he is making and the subject under discussion.

To a perpetual joker he can jestingly say, 'Your cracks are very good, Mr so and so. How about reserving the rest for the cultural programme hour?'

Silent members constitute a special difficulty. They can be drawn out in several ways. Sometimes a member may have something very important to say, but out of shyness he does not speak out his mind loudly; instead he whispers or carries on a private conversation on that particular point with the man next to him. The chairman in this case, can tactfully say, 'Mr X! I am sure you have something very important to say. Would you not give the group the benefit of listening to what you are whispering?' or he may simply say, 'Mr X! you have not spoken so far. I am sure you have something very important to say. Will you not speak out?' One successful technique is to agree with a shy member at the beginning with whatever he says and thereby encourage him to talk.

By setting a non-evaluative, purposive and non-critical group climate, he can reduce the tendency of members to be afraid to say what they really mean.

Sometimes it happens that a member does not understand the point himself. In such cases the chairman can go on or improve it by saying 'Is this what you mean?' Then he states the point himself. In any case, a chairman should never betray impatience at the speaker's inability to make himself clear. To restate in his own words, the meaning he gets from a person's comments, is a true test of understanding. It will not be easy. The chairman will find it difficult to restate another's meaning to that person's satisfaction. But he should give a person a chance to indicate whether he has been understood.

The group leader will frequently find it necessary after several members have made their contributions to say, 'Now it seems to me that you people are all suggesting just about the same thing. Is not this the basic idea?'—he can then proceed to synthesize and ask for their approval.

Not only do group members who have similar ideas express them in different ways, but sometimes people who have different ideas describe them in a way that sounds the same. In such a situation a leader should find it necessary

to point out, 'I do not think you two are really talking about the same thing.'

Often in a discussion, two or more members may fall out bitterly. Unless the conflicts can be satisfactorily resolved, there is a danger of the entire discussion ending up in chaos and confusion. The chairman must, therefore, resolve such conflicts at an early stage. How does he do it? He can adopt the following methods:

(i) He can ask the members to define the terms they are using. Very often people fall out, because they mean different things by the same term. Democracy, for instance, means different things to different people. It often happens after the terms are defined, that the antagonists find that they have been talking at cross-purposes, meaning different things. In such cases they may end up by saying, 'Well, if this what you mean, I do not disagree with you.'

(ii) Similarly, a chairman can resolve conflicts by stressing the points of agreement continually and minimising the points of difference. Arguments may at first be based on logical grounds, but soon emotion begins to hold sway, people get into positions which are untenable and although they realise it, they never concede because of the desire to save face. They will either (a) persist emotionally in their untenable positions, or (b) review the matter further or (c) find some loopholes through which they can crawl out of the dilemma without losing prestige.

In such cases if the chairman can tactfully step in and stress the many points of agreement between the opponents, a favourable climate may be created; emotion may subside and ultimately the opponents may be brought to a compromise.

The chairman can also provide face-saving positions to which members who find themselves in difficulty can retreat. It is interesting to note in this connection that in the U.N., a clever chairman often resorts to this procedure when Russia and the U.S.A. disagree violently on some matter. By stressing continually the points of agreement, sometimes their differences are narrowed down and the two camps eventually manage to reach agreement.

(iii) Thirdly, he can resolve conflicts by adjourning the

meeting, if all other tactics fail. It often happens that members are in a better frame of mind after an interval and are willing to compromise. In seminars, workshops and training camps, he can use tea or coffee break-periods for this purpose. Partaking of coffee or tea with one or two biscuits, enables the angry members gradually to cool down and when they return for discussion, they are often willing to compromise, provided the chairman grasps the opportunity and clarifies the position properly.

(iv) If all these methods fail, the chairman can resort to a vote. But this should be used only as a last resort. For taking votes on any issue, divides the group and creates bitterness. Where the purpose of discussion is to understand each other's viewpoints, vote-taking should not be attempted. If the differences cannot be resolved in normal ways, the minority opinion should be recorded.

Only where the discussion is intended to lead to some action programmes, which cannot be undertaken if no decision is reached, the chairman can resort to vote-taking.

To recapitulate: a leader's key-guides should be:

- (a) planning the opening questions in advance,
- (b) throwing questions to the group as a whole,
- (c) not interrupting unless it is important,
- (d) watching for a chance when the group seems to have talked out a point and then push towards the goal.

He can guide by: (a) placing the facts before the members clearly at the beginning of each meeting and (b) by asking clear questions when discussion has stopped.

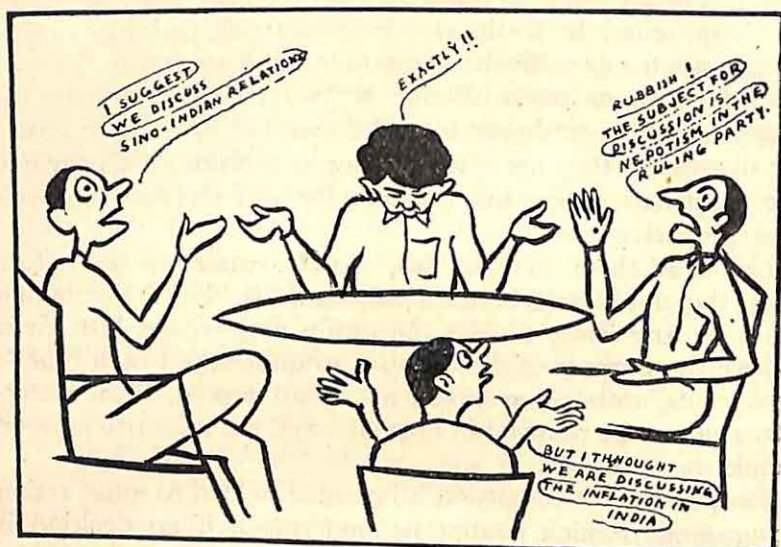
He can regulate by:

- (i) clarifying and restating issues,
- (ii) by resolving conflicts and
- (iii) by pulling up difficult members.

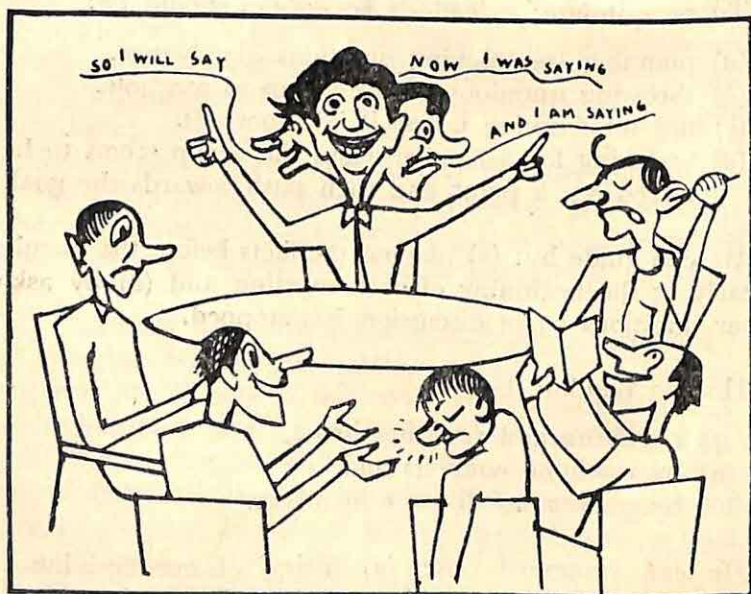
He can summarise by: (a) listing of accomplishments, (b) listing of unsolved problems and (c) listing the points of agreement and disagreement.

EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES

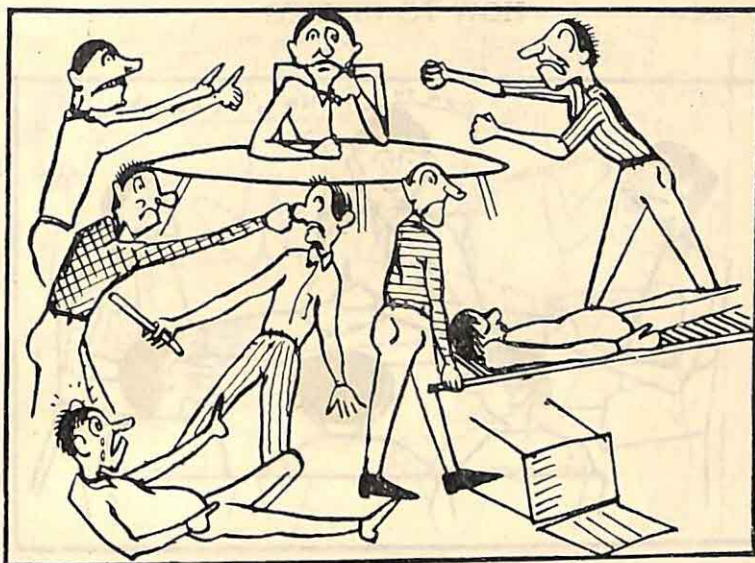
HOW NOT TO DISCUSS



1. START WITHOUT ANY AGENDA



2. DO ALL THE TALKING YOURSELF

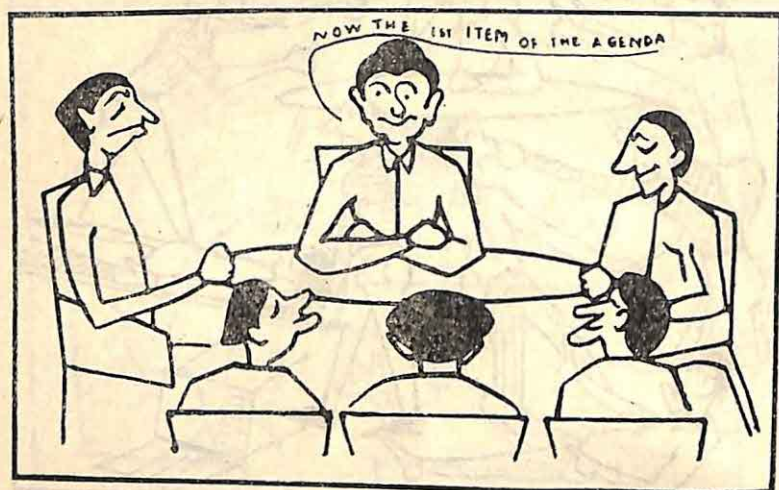


3. DO NOT MEDIATE. ALLOW CONFLICTS TO TAKE
THEIR NORMAL COURSE

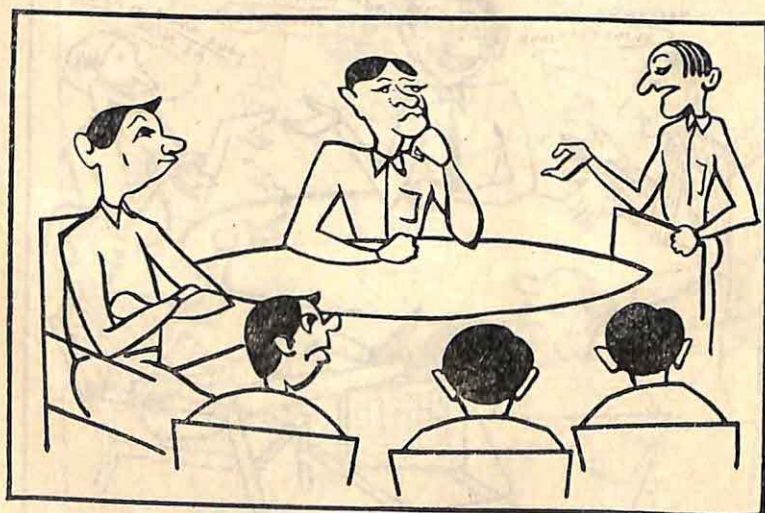


4. DO WITHOUT MINUTES

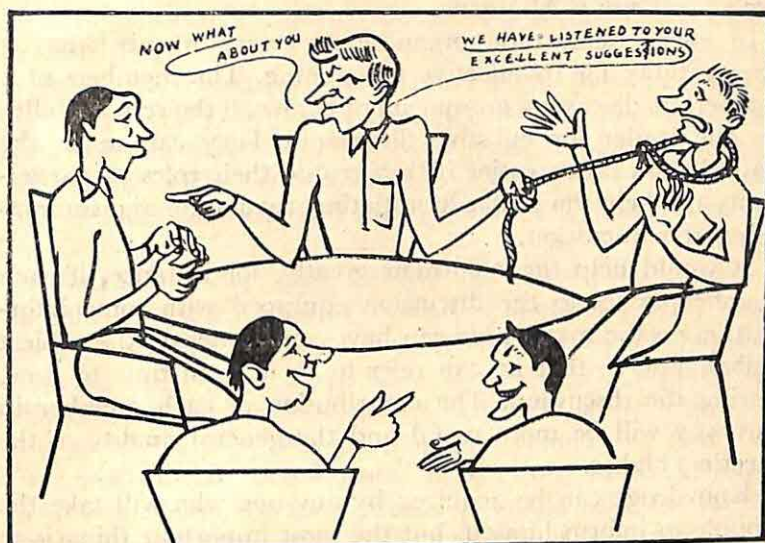
HOW TO DISCUSS



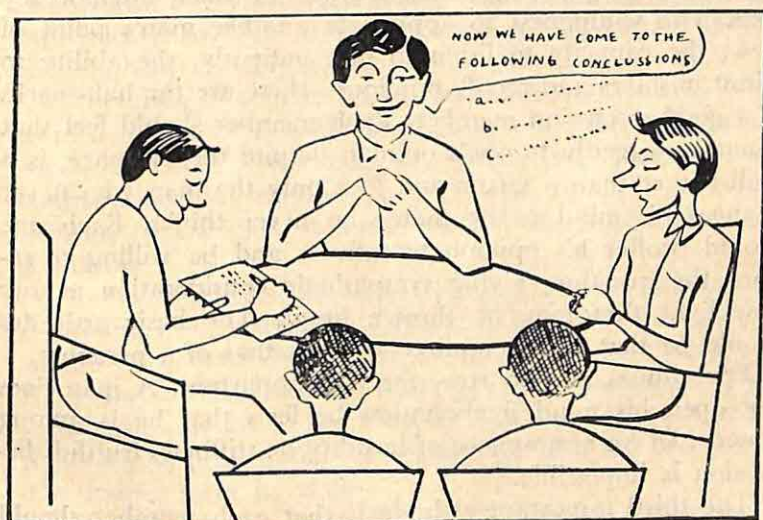
1. HAVE A NOT TOO LONG BUT WELL THOUGHT OUT AGENDA



2. LET OTHERS TALK



3. STOP DIGRESSING MEMBERS



4. CONTINUALLY SUMMARISE THE POINTS AND HAVE THEM RECORDED

ROLE OF GROUP MEMBERS

In every democratic organisation, every member has a responsibility for its effective functioning. The members of a democratic discussion group cannot throw all the responsibility on one leader for effective discussion. They can make the leader's task much easier if they realise their roles as participants and help the leader in initiating, regulating and summarising the discussion.

It would help the chairman greatly, for instance, if each member comes to the discussion equipped with some information on the matter. He can have some notes on the subject before him, so that he can refer to them from time to time, during the discussion. The contribution of each member in this way will be more useful and the general quality of the meeting higher.

Knowledge can be acquired by any one who will take the trouble to inform himself, but the most important thing is to have the right attitude to discussion and the right habit. These can be cultivated if one makes the effort.

What are these attitudes and habits? The first attitude is that of tolerance. It is the basic attitude on which a democracy rests. The willingness to appreciate another man's point of view, the capacity to listen to him patiently, the ability to admit mistakes and rectify opinions—these are the hall-marks of a good discussion member. Each member should feel that clinging doggedly to one's opinion despite the evidence, is a fault rather than a virtue and that only the man who never changes his mind is the man who never thinks. Each one should proffer his opinion tentatively and be willing to reopen the question, giving sympathetic consideration to any new light that may be thrown on it. The basic attitudes should be that of an enquirer and not that of a preacher.

Friendliness and courtesy are also important. A man does not open his mind freely unless he feels that he is among friends. In an atmosphere of hostility or stiffness, fruitful discussion is impossible.

The third important attitude is that each member should have a lively interest in the discussion. Otherwise, he should not join the group at all. One or two silent members, with no interest in the discussion and with bored expressions on

their faces, can chill the atmosphere and thwart the discussion considerably.

Lastly, each member should submerge his personal interests, for the general good. Often in our discussion groups, members vie with one another in trying to seek recognition and get their points included. Sometimes this results in exhibitionism, use of meaningless jargon and showing off, finally resulting in bickering.

What about some good habits? The first one is control of speech. The word 'control' is used deliberately. While complete silence is not good, talking for the purpose of talking or showing off, is bad. A member should speak, supply facts, information and opinions, only when he feels they will be of use to the group. His participation should be timed appropriately. He should not make long-winded remarks at any one time. In fact, discussion should take the form of conversation rather than an exchange of long statements. Seldom should a contribution be more than a few sentences in length and often a few words are sufficient. Long contributions that slow up progress are sometimes due to sheer verbosity. Many words are used to say what could have been said more clearly in a few words. Terseness is a virtue; for unnecessary verbiage usually obscures clear thinking.

Sometimes, of course, unduly long contributions may result from a member's attempt to present a number of points. It would be better if one point at a time is presented in each contribution. If several are presented simultaneously, the attempt on the part of the group to discuss all will lead to confusion.

The second important habit that should be cultivated, is refraining from interrupting others. The suggestion that one should participate freely does not mean that he should interrupt others. When two are talking at the same time, nothing useful can emerge. If the idea the member wishes to express is worthy of presentation at all, a delay of a few seconds will not detract from its value.

The third important habit is controlling one's temper. This is a difficult habit to acquire, because normally we expect others to agree with whatever we say and we resent disagreement. In India particularly, discussions are often spoiled

by intemperate use of language and personal attacks by group members against each other. Yet we forget that without disagreement, there can be no group discussion. Moreover, even if a person may disagree totally with another, he can express disagreement in a courteous way: 'I see your point, but I am afraid I do not agree with what you said.' In a tolerant atmosphere, members can play their roles creditably by asking and giving information.

GROUP-CENTRED DISCUSSION

From the above, we can arrive at two conclusions: (a) that for a discussion to be successful, a good chairman is necessary and (b) that members must play their roles properly and help the chairman. But this usually does not happen for two reasons: (a) really good discussion leaders are rare as noted above and (b) members rely too much on the leader.

The only answer, therefore, is to train each member individually to be a good discussion leader. This can be done by rotating the function of the chairman among different members.

But recently a newer approach is being tried. The researches of Kurt Lewin have shown that leadership is a problem for the group to solve and not the particular responsibility of any individual. This is known as the group-centred approach. Lewin experimented with three types of leadership:

- (a) **DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP:** in which the leader helped the group to organise discussion and take its decision,
- (b) **AUTHORITARIAN LEADERSHIP:** in which the leader maintained rigid control and
- (c) **LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP:** in which the leader remained completely passive.

Results showed that the group with democratic leadership consistently produced the best results in terms of things accomplished, co-operative relationship and personal growth. The group under authoritarian leadership produced less and encountered friction and frustration. The group under laissez-faire leadership secured the last position on all counts.

While democratic leadership or group-centred leadership is the best leadership, it will not work in certain situations. If

the purpose of the group is indoctrination, group-centred discussion will not work. An administrator who has to inform his subordinates of changes in regulations, handed down from higher authorities, would not work through the group-centred discussion method. Nor would a sea-captain whose ship is sinking, use group-centred discussion to get his passengers into life-boats.

But barring these few instances, discussion should be democratically conducted and the more it is group-centred rather than leader-centred the better it will be. Group-centred discussion implies that a leader's different functions are not vested in one man, but are split up among different members. Instead of one leader having exclusive responsibility to initiate, control and summarise, these functions are relegated to different members who constitute the leadership team.

But how can a group accomplish anything without a strong leadership? It seems incredible that without directive leadership, a group can accomplish anything more than rambling talk. There is evidence, however, from a wide variety of sources that group-centred discussion is not only more satisfying, but is actually more productive than leader-directed discussion. The reasons for this phenomenon are evident. When a group takes up responsibility for its own operation, it has many more resources to bring to bear on the solution of different problems than any individual.

But we may ask further: 'Will not aggressive members tend to destroy group work unless there is a leader who can control them?' In actual practice, however, group-centred groups have effective control over a member's behaviour. In the first place, the need for self-projection and other disruptive actions tend to disappear in a climate of acceptance and understanding. Secondly, collective criticism can act as a strong brake on a man's behaviour.

The third question that one may ask is: 'Would it not take too much time to get a group organised this way?' The answer is that it does take some time, but the result is worth the effort. Moreover, the process can be speeded up by advance preparation of key individuals through interviews.

A convenient device used by many discussion groups in the United States is to have a leadership team consisting of

a convenor, a blackboard member, a recorder and two observers or evaluators. The job of the convenor is to initiate, direct and regulate the discussion. The job of the blackboard member is to sit with a chalk near the blackboard and flash on it, in short sentences, the points that are under discussion at any moment. In case any one strays from the point, the blackboard member can point out with his chalk what is being discussed and politely ask the errant member to go back to it.

Then there is the recorder, who takes down a synopsis of what is going on. He also plays a valuable part in regulating the discussion by reading out his summaries when the discussion has stopped and the group wants to know how far it has proceeded. The last two members in the team are the evaluators, who respectively evaluate the participation of individual members and the quality of the discussion.

We shall discuss a little later how the observers should work. Evaluation is a very important job and requires detailed discussion. But before that, one or two words about the recorder should be said. It is not necessary that he should record everything that goes on. He can only take down the important points and the decisions reached on each point. In fact, it would be convenient for him to adopt a proforma as follows:

<i>Points discussed</i>	<i>Conclusions reached</i>
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.
6.	6.

It is obvious that the convenor or the chairman has far less responsibility under this system than he would have in a leader-centred discussion. Although the main responsibility for starting the discussion, for guiding it to desired goals, for restarting it when the group has reached an impasse, and for summarising it, still devolves on him, he is ably supported in all these functions by the other team members.

How to reason in group discussion:

The most important materials may be facts. But we will not arrive at a solution by mere facts. These have to be interpreted. Facts can be interpreted through our faculty of reason. If, however, everyone was logical and exercised his rational faculty in a cool objective manner, not only would the task of the chairman become easier, but the quality of discussion would improve considerably. Unfortunately, however, this is not so.

In the first place, we are emotional and emotion warps judgement. It is true that there are times when one can surrender oneself to an emotional appeal, say, for some humanitarian cause. Our minds are made up; the time for action has arrived; and the speaker or the writer who can fire us with the enthusiasm to do what we already know ought to be done, performs a useful service. But when we have a problem to solve, cold logic is called for. We should then try to avoid emotion in our thinking process.

In discussions, as has already been pointed out, we are likely to respond emotionally to any remark that is directed against what we have stated, that questions our motives, or that attacks us personally. Our resentment against the speaker, then blinds us to the merit we might otherwise see in his argument. To think clearly in a discussion, we must cultivate the habit of coolly ignoring the emotional implications of provocative statements.

Our capacity for believing whatever serves our own interest is remarkable. We support our belief by inventing reasons for the same. To put it in another way, we can start with the conclusion that favours our interest and then discover reasons to support it.

Apart from emotional factors, our judgement is warped by our deep-seated prejudices, some of which we may not be even aware of consciously.

Then comes our gullibility. We are inclined to believe, almost anything we are told, if we are told often and by persons we have a tendency to admire. Some people are impressed by any utterance of an eminent person.

Apart from emotionalism and gullibility, we often commit logical fallacies in our arguments. We have to guard against these.

The members of reasoning are the same in discussion as in a lecture or any other form of oral communication. We can come to a conclusion by inductive or deductive reasoning, by analogy or testimony.

The chief fallacy that one has to guard against when drawing a conclusion inductively from a number of instances is whether a sufficient number of instances have been cited to warrant a general conclusion. When a physicist conducts an experiment to determine at what temperature chemically pure water will boil under a given atmospheric pressure, he can control all the factors likely to affect the result. One carefully conducted experiment in such cases might give a reliable conclusion. But factors which may affect the result of social investigation are so many, so difficult to identify and so isolated, that a large number of instances must be examined. How many instances a social scientist must examine to warrant a reliable conclusion, depend on what assurance he has that the instances he has chosen are typical of the class from which they are drawn. If someone in a discussion group says that there is no people's participation in community development and gives some instances to prove it, the extent to which the group will accept his evidence will depend on whether other people have the same opinion based on their individual experiences. If another member holds a contrary view and gives a number of contrary instances, the group will have to discuss the points much more fully before it can come to a conclusion.

Coming to a conclusion through analogy, is also fraught with loopholes. If, let us say, dictatorship has taken place in Pakistan and we draw the conclusion that dictatorship will take place in India too, because the two societies and situations are similar, the fallacy in drawing such a conclusion will be obvious. To come to a reasonable conclusion, one has to show that the two situations compared, are identical in all respects, so that one can say with some amount of confidence that if something happens under this set of circumstances in country A, the same thing will happen under identical circumstances in country B, provided country A and country B are identical in all respects. If, for instance, one of the conditions in either of the two countries can be

shown to be different, the analogy falls through. Our above statement that just because military dictatorship has taken place in Pakistan, it is likely to take place in India too, is fallacious, because although India and Pakistan have certain similarities, they also have some glaring dissimilarities. Therefore, the analogy does not hold water.

Coming to a conclusion on the basis of testimony is also common. Sometimes, of course, it is unavoidable. We have to accept without question the medicine prescribed by our doctor because he is an authority on the subject. We take it for granted that Strontium 90 will produce bone cancer, because, world-renowned Atomic Scientists like Dr. Oppenheimer or Dr. Peter Capitza say so. There is no need for further questioning. Many people believe in the truth of holy books, e.g. the Geeta or the Bible. Because they were taken to be revealed by God.

But drawing conclusions on the basis of authority can be done up to a point. It is fraught with grave risks because people are so gullible. One can only draw a conclusion from an authority if one is sure that the authority has adequate knowledge of the facts, that he has had an opportunity to observe the facts, that he is qualified by training and experience to observe in this particular field and above all that he is free from prejudice. For instance, if we accept that community development has succeeded or failed in India, because the U. N. Evaluation Mission or the Programme Evaluation Organization say so, we have to apply the above-noted principles to these authorities before we can take their statements for granted.

A conclusion can also be drawn from a cause and effect relationship. We can say, for instance, that the crop failure in a particular area was caused by lack of water. In this case the fallacies that are to be guarded against are: (i) does the alleged cause and effect relationship actually exist, i.e. does lack of water cause crop failure? (ii) Secondly, is the alleged cause sufficient to explain the effect? There may be other causes also. This may reveal that lack of water may be one of the causes and that it may not be the principal cause. A good example of arguing fallaciously according to the cause and effect relationship is: 'I suffered misfortune

because I saw a black cat or because somebody sneezed when I was starting on my journey.'

How to conduct village discussion:

It may be argued that the points we have discussed so far, apply to sophisticated groups. But what about village groups with whom we are mainly concerned in community development? Do they require an entirely different technique of discussion?

Not really. The process of discussion is essentially the same everywhere; but obviously there are certain minor differences which should be recognised when organising village discussion.

Normally, there are three types of group discussions in the villages. The most numerous are the informal type of meetings where people assemble as a matter of habit, to gossip or talk at the houses of their friends or neighbours. They sit round and sometimes exchange their ideas over the puffs of a moving hookah. For this reason, they have been labelled as hooka groups by some Indian sociologists. The subject of their discussion is usually idle village gossip; but these groups are important, and extension workers can utilize them for more fruitful purposes.

Then there are meetings held by special interest groups like Youth Clubs, Mahila Mandals, Farmers' Forums, etc. These are a little more formal and the discussion usually centres round a subject.

Then there are mass meetings, which the village leaders call on special occasions. The entire village assembles at a central spot and as with most mass meetings, only a few people talk.

Finally, there are the meetings of village panchayats, school managing committees, co-operative societies and others. These meetings are of a formal nature and conducted according to the procedure laid down, either by the government or the organisation itself.

Obviously, the quality of all these types of meetings can be improved greatly. Drawing up the agenda, coherently and carefully, controlling difficult members by the chairman, able summarising, participation by everyone—all these will

make our village meetings more productive and less time-consuming.

But the chief difficulty is—how to get village people to meet regularly at all, particularly in the more formal meetings.

It is commonly observed that attendance in village meetings is usually very scanty. Panchayat budgets are often held up because Gram Sevaks do not meet. Mass meetings, except in a few villages, hardly attract all the villagers. Even Youth Clubs often go out of existence because the meetings are not regularly held.

There are a number of ways in which attendance in village meetings can be increased. For one thing, people often do not come, because the meeting has not been sufficiently publicised. It is necessary, therefore, to inform everyone by beat of drum or by contacting influential village leaders and doing publicity work through them.

If the village is a big one, it is probably better to hold meetings in every ward to begin with. After some time, general meetings can be organised.

It depends, of course, whether the village has cohesion or is riddled with factions. It may be possible even in a big village to hold a general meeting with the majority of villagers turning up, if the village has cohesion and a tradition of community work.

One of the main reasons why attendance is small in meetings, is because the Indian villager is very particular about where the meeting is held. If, for instance, the meeting is held in the house of someone whom he does not like, he will not come. Caste and communal prejudices also play their part in this.

It is, therefore, desirable not to hold a meeting in anyone's house but in some kind of community centre. In many villages there are traditional community centres which are used mainly for festive occasions. These places known as 'chowks' can be conveniently utilized for holding general meetings.

But today the village school or village library is assuming greater and greater importance as a community centre. As we want to make our village school one of the three basic institutions, this is to be encouraged. In some villages, thanks to the community development programme, "Panchayat

Ghars" and community centres have been built. But unfortunately they have not yet become popular as common meeting places.

Technique of village discussion:

It has already been observed that there is nothing peculiar about the way village discussions should be conducted. The process of democratic group discussion should be the same everywhere. But obviously the chairman in a village group discussion has to be very able for he has to discharge most of the responsibilities of conducting a discussion himself, without any others assisting him. For we cannot conceive, for some time to come, a 'leadership team' to help a village leader in discharging different leadership functions. However, our ultimate goal is to train villagers in conducting discussions wherever we can. Potential leaders can be trained in village schools or in short term training camps.

Can any of the important types of group discussions mentioned earlier, like symposia or seminars be introduced in the villages? Some can be, we believe. Panel discussions, for instance, can be very profitably introduced before village gatherings in many matters. Some knowledgeable villagers can start discussion on, let us say, Village Agricultural Production Plan or Seed Saturation Programme before others, who can later participate. Seminars can also be introduced in some subjects like, say, the policy which the village panchayat should adopt towards the weaker sections of the community.

Subject of discussion:

But the main difference between classroom discussion as are carried out in the training centres and village discussions, lies in the subject matters that are discussed. In classroom discussions, it is our purpose to give our trainees special skill in the technique of discussion. As a consequence of which, even academic subjects can be discussed. But in village discussions, academic subjects should not be discussed except perhaps in gatherings of literate villagers like the school teachers. The villager is a practical person. He is mainly interested in the solutions of the problems which beset him.

He will not take part or come to a discussion which does not touch his interest directly. Village discussions should, therefore, be on subjects which can immediately be followed by action programmes such as building roads and irrigation channels, crop rotation, village agricultural production plan, etc.

The purpose of motivation in any human activity is to arouse interest and a desire on the part of the individual members of a group to learn and act and to direct their learning and action along desirable lines. As motivation largely depends on interest and interest on individual sentiments and urges, the sources of motivating the people lie within themselves and their immediate environment. The programme of village meetings, therefore, must be oriented to the sentiments and urges of the members and to local needs.

Involvement in group discussions is one of the basic tools of democracy. The Indian villager who has not so far been involved in such democratic methods of group planning and action, finds it difficult to adjust himself to rapidly changing programmes.

The process of training him in democracy will, therefore, be slow. But we must see that every meeting must follow a democratic pattern, so that the group can learn tolerance and other democratic virtues. The leader must provide an atmosphere where everyone is free to express his views. Where such leaders are not available immediately, extension workers must conduct group discussions themselves to train villagers in the process of democracy.

Evaluation of discussion:

Evaluating a discussion is essential if the quality of discussion is to be improved. This can be done either by observers who are outside the group or by assigning this responsibility to one or more members in the discussion group itself. The latter method is better, because different members can improve their skill in participant observation by discharging this responsibility again and again, as a consequence of which the skill of the group, on the whole, will increase. Moreover, in a democratic group, the friendly observation

We have already mentioned the device of using a team which assists the chairman in conducting a group discussion. The functions of each team member can be rotated among the members of a group, so that each member can have his turn as an observer, a blackboard member or a recorder.

If there are two observers—one can evaluate the performance of individual members, while the other can evaluate the quality of the discussion as a whole.

Gr. I Sri— Sri— Sri— Sri— Sri—

- (1) Information.
- (2) Offered information and explanation.

On how many points:

- (1) He resolved conflicts.
- (2) Synthesised.

On how many points:

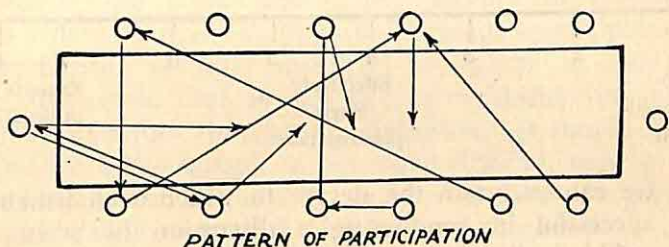
- (1) He blocked.
- (2) Was aggressive.
- (3) Monopolised.
- (4) Played the clown.

In this sheet, the names of the members are written on the top and on the left-hand side, in a vertical column, some of the important points on which the participation of the members is to be judged, are given. For instance, against the name of, let us say, Sri Sharma, an evaluator can note that he resolved conflicts twice by putting two against his

name in the appropriate column or that he monopolised three times by putting 3 under his name against 'Monopolised'. This will give an indication of the behaviour pattern of a particular member during a discussion.

But should this sheet be read out to the group? Normally, it arouses a lot of antagonism when one member writes deprecatory remarks about others and reads them out at the end of the session. This may lead to acrimony and destroy the group spirit we are trying to foster. Evaluation of participation by individual group members should be made preferably by an Instructor and should not be read out. A habitual offender can be privately told about his weakness so that he can rectify himself.

The best way of showing individual participation would probably be by drawing a flow chart as follows:



Although one gets only some idea about how people participate by the method, no offence is caused as no names are mentioned.

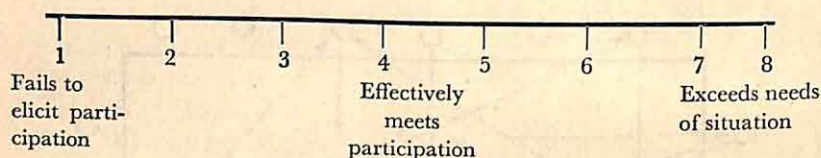
The general quality of discussion is likewise evaluated by another schedule containing a number of questions such as follows:

Proforma for evaluating the quality of discussion:

1. Were the goals of the meeting clearly defined?
2. (a) Did the meeting have an agenda and well-defined procedure of discussion?
- (b) Was the procedure explained to the group?
3. Did the meeting run according to procedure?
4. (a) Were the members well informed?
- (b) Was the discussion supplemented by reading?
5. (a) How many good decisions were reached?

- (b) How many problems were properly located and analysed?
6. How many members were agreed and satisfied with the decisions?
 7. (a) Did the members argue rationally?
(b) Were the conclusions critically tested?
 8. Was the progress of discussion summarised from time to time?
 9. Did the meeting have an atmosphere in which all felt free to express their ideas and feelings?

If we want further exactitude in our evaluation, we have to break up the questions further and devise rating scales. One typical example of a rating scale in connection with the evaluation of the Chairman's performance is given below:



Thus we can ascertain the degree to which a chairman has been successful in conducting a discussion by seeing the extent of his inclination to one side of the scale or the other.

Quality of village discussion:

To judge the quality of village discussion, we have to ask the following questions particularly:

- (a) Did the meeting provide additional information about and insight into community life?
- (b) Was the decision imposed by majority vote, or the will of one man or a consensus of opinion?
- (c) To what extent the decisions have been translated into practice?

The final question is: Is a convenor necessary at all where the members have taken the responsibility of conducting the discussion themselves? In this country, until all of us become fully democratic and responsible members, there will always be a need for a discussion leader with greater powers and

responsibilities than the others. Even in the United States where this system originated, the experts feel that in the early stages of group life, there is a real need for one person who will take the initiative in helping the group to define its goals, organise itself and establish operational procedures. But while the leader remains, he should recede more and more into the background and let the group take full responsibility for conducting the discussion.

Section II

WORKSHOPS AND CAMPS

1. Workshops:

Workshops also come under the category of teaching methods where learning is imparted through participation. Some authorities consider that the 'workshop' is another form of discussion. But in practice, a workshop involves many more activities than group discussions. It should also be noted that a 'workshop', as the name signifies, must produce something. The production can take the form of reports, more formal publications and even material objects.

As the programme of many workshops show, these activities are varied in character. A typical workshop can range from two to three days or several weeks, during which period, lectures, panel discussions, symposia, written work, field trips, organisations of exhibitions, and even demonstrations in particular subjects may be arranged, to drive home the subjects in the minds of the participants.

Group discussions may form the principal basis of some workshops. But it need not be so in other cases. There can, for instance, be a workshop on 'literacy teaching' in which there may be some group discussion. But the major part of the activity may be practice teaching in night schools, production of literature for neo-literates, etc.

This method of teaching which has come into vogue since World War II, was first evolved in the United States. In India too, it is gaining increasing importance, although there is still considerable confusion about the meaning of the term.

The first important series of workshops were organised in India by the U.S. Educational Foundation at Baroda. A cursory glance at their time-table would reveal how workshops should be organised. These workshops were held for six weeks with two sessions daily. The work consisted of discussion by study groups, interviews with technical personnel, library work, education film shows, lectures, panel discussions and entertainment programmes. These programmes were managed by the participants themselves who were subdivided into a number of committees.

Steps in planning and conducting a workshop:

The larger and more complex a workshop is, in terms of time, variety of programmes and of people participating, the more involved and time-consuming the process will be.

The steps in organising a workshop are: (a) formulating the policies and objectives of the workshop, which includes defining the general purpose, deciding the scope of attendance and obtaining information about the needs and interests of the participants; (b) secondly, appointing a number of sub-committees to look after the programme, publicity, recreational and social activities, production, exhibits and materials, reports, evaluation, etc., (c) thirdly, developing a workshop design including arrangements for speakers, panel members, background papers and pamphlets, (d) fourthly, training of different committee leaders, resource persons and recorders; (e) lastly, reviewing the workshop experience and analysing the implications of the evaluation of this experience for further workshops.

It is to be noted that the different work groups which form the basis of workshops, can be of different kinds, depending on the purpose of the workshop. For instance, there can be (a) skill training work groups in which participants can be divided according to the specific skills they wish to learn or practise, e.g. programme planning, leadership, production and use of visual aids, etc.; (b) then there can be problem-solving work groups into which participants are divided according to the particular problem they wish to work on, such as problems arising out of community organisations; (c) and lastly there can be production work groups into which parti-

cipants are divided according to their wish to take part in the planning and carrying out of certain projects on behalf of the total workshop, such as staging a demonstration, producing a role playing scene, publicising a news letter and finally preparing a report.

A model plan of organising a workshop is given below:

SUBJECT	Cottage Industries Programme.
PARTICIPANTS	Block Development Officers.
METHODS TO BE USED	Lectures, symposia, individual and group assignments, field trips, demonstrations, organisations of exhibitions.
PERIOD	5 (five) days.

DAILY PROGRAMME

1st day:

Morning	Symposia on 'different aspects of the programme'. (1) Cluster type training centres in Bihar by Director of Industries, Bihar; (2) Industrial Estates in West Bengal by Director of Industries, West Bengal; (3) Panchayat-sponsored Cottage Industries of Orissa by Director of Industries, Orissa.
Afternoon	Plenary session of seminar on 'How to make the cottage industries programme in the C.D. Blocks effective'.
Evening	Opening of 'Exhibition on Cottage Industries organised by the trainees'.
Late evening	Cultural Programme.

2nd day:

Morning	Group discussion (the three Directors acting as resource men).
Afternoon	Group discussion (the three Directors acting as resource men).
Evening	Demonstration by 'Mobile Workshop Unit' of the West Bengal Government.
Late evening	Cultural Programme.

3rd day:

Morning

Plenary Session.

Afternoon

Reading of papers by individual participants on 'Special problems in industries'.

Evening

Cultural Function.

4th day:

Morning

Lectures by different speakers on Khadi and handloom board's programme with demonstrations.

Afternoon

Field trips to some cottage industries centres.

Evening

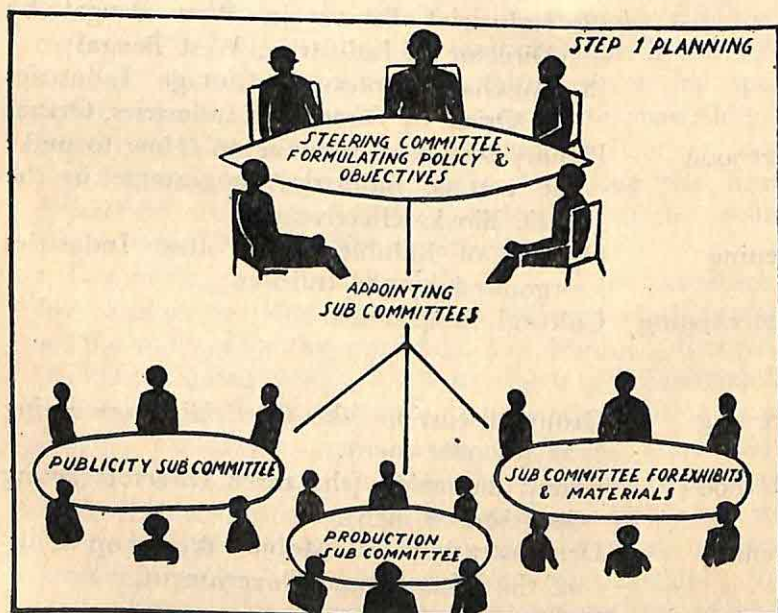
Cultural Functions.

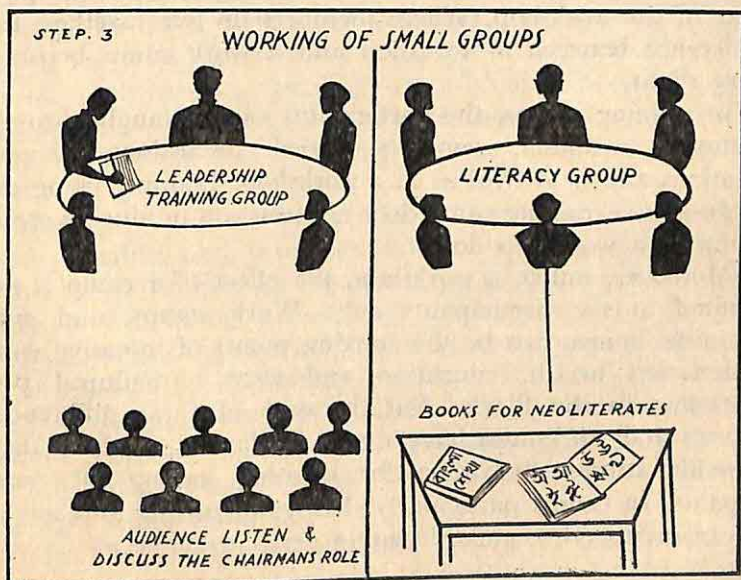
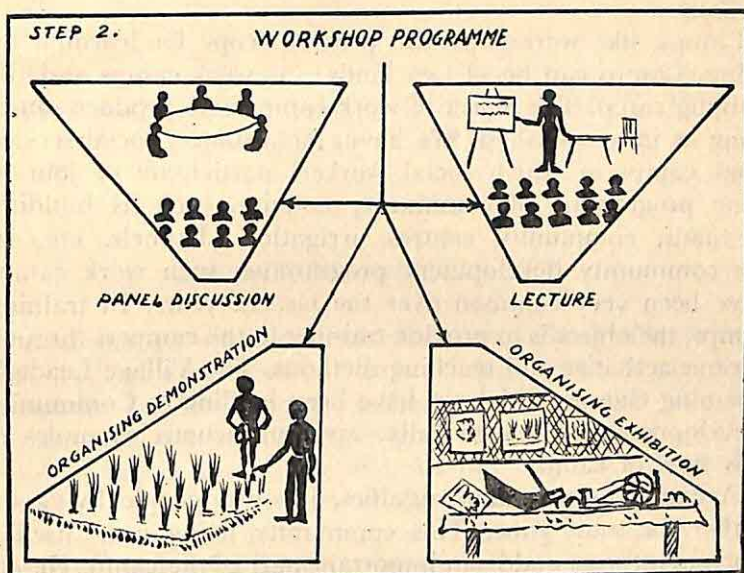
End Product

Publications including—lectures, symposium and seminar discussions and special assignments given to trainees.

N.B. During the workshop the trainees may bring out a daily newspaper featuring daily news about the workshop with their comments.

STEPS IN CONDUCTING A WORKSHOP





2. *Camps:*

Camps, like workshops also provide scope for learning by doing. Camps can be of two kinds: (a) work camps and (b) training camp. The object of work camps is to produce something as in a workshop. We have, for instance, social service work camps in which social workers participate or join in some programme of community activity, such as building of roads, community centres, irrigation channels, etc. In the community development programme, such work camps have been very common over the last 12 years. In training camps, the object is to provide training to the campers through various activities and teaching methods. The Village Leader's Training Camps, which we have been holding in Community Development Blocks in India, are conspicuous examples of this type of camp.

A camp, as the name signifies, involves people living together for some time. This community living is in itself a learning process and is an important part of the camp. Herein lies, we believe, one of the main differences between a 'camp' and a workshop. A workshop need not always involve members living together in one place. They may come every day from their homes to study together or work together for the purpose of the workshop. Where members do live together, the difference between a workshop and a work camp becomes very slight.

In training camps, the participants can be taught through lectures, symposia, seminars, panel discussions, demonstrations and field trips as in a workshop. Training being the main aim, a training camp does not insist on producing something as a workshop does.

Moreover, unlike a workshop, the effect of a camp is not limited to the participants only. Work camps, and even training camps, can be the starting points of intensive campaigns on health, education and even agricultural programmes in the Blocks. But, in spite of these differences, camps and workshops have many similarities. Both of them provide strong motivation for learning among the participants. In camps particularly, living, discussing and solving problems together make learning very attractive.

CHAPTER FOUR

TEACHING AND LEARNING THROUGH THE WRITTEN WORDS

Section I

IMPORTANCE OF LITERACY

Despite the growing importance of new methods of learning, there is till now no substitute for reading, as regards range of information or development of thinking. Visual aids may be interesting to watch, but they cannot express subtle thoughts. Lectures may be interesting to hear, but they may be easily forgotten. The written word on the other hand, has none of these disadvantages. It can impart enduring knowledge and deep understanding. It can take a learner systematically, from one level of understanding to another. It can enable a generation to pass on its accumulated wisdom to its successors.

The practical benefits of literacy cannot be overemphasised. Keeping in touch with one's relations and friends through letters, receiving daily information about the outside world through newspapers, keeping records and accounts and reading notices and regulations—are some of the important daily needs of modern life, which literacy enables a person to fulfil.

Moreover, by extending a man's knowledge of language, literacy enables him to understand the literature and thought of the society he lives in. Above all, by raising a person's self-esteem and creating a desire for self-improvement, literacy produces something like a spiritual regeneration in him.

For a nation, its importance is no less. Technical knowledge which is essential in a modern State, can hardly be realised without literacy. The smooth functioning of democracy itself, if not its very existence, is threatened if the majority of people are illiterate.

From all this, it becomes evident that propagation of literacy has to be a major aim of community development.

Actually it is so. But the problem in most underdeveloped countries is gigantic and their present resources to meet it, are too meagre.

Moreover, a considerable amount of the initial effort is wasted, because many neo-literates lapse into illiteracy for want of suitable reading material.

Particularly in India, if adults are to be made literate within a foreseeable future, considerable improvements in the organisation and method of teaching will have to be effected.

Method of literacy:

Let us consider the methods of literacy first. Considerable research has been made on the subject over the last two decades. In this connection the name of Dr. Frank Laubach is well known. His methods which have made thousands of people literate, have been eagerly adopted in many countries.

Today, there is no underdeveloped country in the world, where adult literacy is not being accorded serious attention. Experiments with new methods are being pursued vigorously. Scores of primers for illiterates have been written. Individuals, voluntary organisations and governments are combining their resources to eliminate illiteracy.

UNESCO itself is taking a big hand in this world-wide quest. It has set up a number of centres to conduct research and propagate literacy. It has brought out a number of publications, giving a survey of literacy methods which are being followed in different countries.

These methods can be broadly divided into:

- (a) those which emphasise elements of words like letters or syllables and their sounds, as aids to word recognition;
- (b) those which use words or larger language units as the starting points of a lesson and
- (c) those which try to combine both these approaches.

The methods which use elements of words, antedate all others. As they build up bigger units from smaller elements, they have been called synthetic, as opposed to analytic methods, which start with bigger units and break them up into small elements. The third group is called 'eclectic' as they try to combine both synthetic and analytic approaches.

(a) *Synthetic methods:*

These can again be divided, for the sake of convenience, into (i) alphabetic, (ii) phonic and (iii) syllabic methods.

The alphabetic method needs no introduction. In fact, we all learnt to read that way as children, mastering through repetition the names and forms of letters first and then coining words with them like 'c — a — t' and 'b — a — t'.

The phonic method is adopted in languages where the sounds of individual letters, when uttered rapidly, produce the word and where there are no separate names for letters apart from their sounds. Indian languages, particularly those derived from Sanskrit, are amenable to this type of treatment.

In the initial stage, according to this method, the forms and sounds of the letters are taught—as a rule, the vowels first. The teacher writes the letter 'a' for example, on the blackboard, or points it out on a chart or in a primer, and as he does so he gives its sounds often, calling attention to the movements required to pronounce it. The sound is then repeated several times by the pupil and other vowels are introduced and their sounds repeated several times, so that the association between the sound of the letter and its form is established. After the vowels, the consonants are introduced in some prescribed order and their sounds combined with each of the vowels.

One of the chief advantages of the phonic method is its use of the sounds of letters in word recognition. Moreover, it develops the ability to sound the letters of any new word and to pronounce it by blending these sounds. The method, however, is not practicable in all languages.

In the syllabic method, the starting points are syllables and not letters. The use of syllables is preferred to that of letters, because in some languages, like Spanish and Japanese, many consonants can be actually pronounced only in combination with vowels.

It may be noted that synthetic methods, all of which emphasise learning through repetition and memorising, are defended on the ground that they promote accuracy and independence particularly in word recognition. Moreover, their application does not require a high degree of skill on

the part of the teacher—an important factor to consider in countries where there is a dearth of good teachers.

On the other hand, synthetic methods, in their eagerness to teach word recognition, fail to develop the activity to understand what is read. Moreover, the content of a lesson in a traditional primer, often has no relation to the interests of the pupil—a fact which should be remembered when teaching adults.

(b) Analytic or global method:

These methods are based on meaningful wholes—words, sentences or stories.

In the word method, for instance, familiar words are used as starting points or basic units in a lesson, a picture often accompanying a word. Thus the word 'tree' may be put beside a picture of it and the pupil after seeing both, a number of times, will come to associate the word with a tree. To help him further, the picture may be drawn in such a way as to resemble the shape of the first letter of the word, viz. 't'. The letters in Dr. Laubach's primers, are drawn this way.

After being able to recognise the form of the word at sight, it becomes easy for the pupil to identify its constituent elements, viz. syllables and letters, when they are put before his eyes separately. The 'word' method, therefore, involves beginning with wholes and then analysing the wholes into parts.

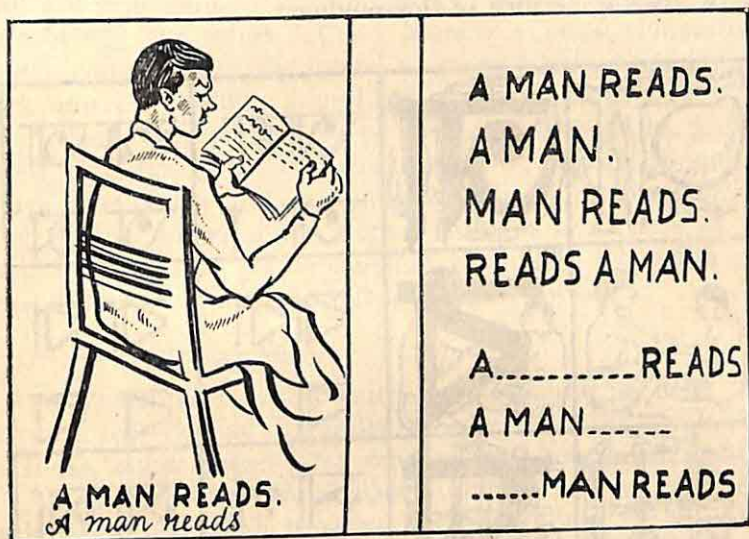
It can be clearly seen that analytic methods by concentrating on the meaning from the beginning, stimulate interest, because reading makes sense at once. Meaningful units of larger size also provide easy frames for memory work.

On the other hand, it involves the use of relatively highly trained teachers, who have to evince a considerable amount of attention, activity and imagination in order to realise fully the possibilities of this approach.

Some advocates of the analytic method feel, that a lesson should start with a full sentence, rather than a single word, because the sentence is the true unit in any language, expressing whole thought.

Primers using the sentence method usually have a picture beside the sentence. The picture of a man reading a book

as given here, can be recognised by anybody. The sentence expressing the action in the picture, is written beside it. The pupil familiarises himself with the form of the sentence and then learns its individual words and letters through subsequent exercises described on the next page.

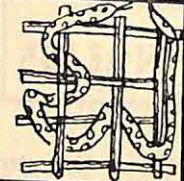


As a further expansion of the sentence method, the story method is used, starting a lesson with a whole story. A story provides a more complete unit of thought than the sentence, because it carries the reader through an entire series of events which have a beginning, middle and end. It, therefore, not only emphasises meaning, but trains pupils to anticipate and follow a sequence of ideas. It also inculcates a love of reading and a taste for good literature.

At first, to rouse interest, the teacher tells the story in a modified version. Its details are then discussed in the sequence in which they were related, until they are fairly well known to the pupils. The story is then written on the blackboard and people soon learn to identify individual sentences within the story. Each sentence is picked out and read repeatedly until it is easily recognised. The next stage is to identify the words and the individual letters within a word.

(c) *Eclectic Method:*

The eclectic trend is recent. According to this approach, simultaneous use is made of analysis and synthesis. For instance, a lesson can start with some key words, followed by their analysis into syllables, and letters, followed by the synthesis of the syllables and letters into new words. The chart below gives some idea of this method.

		আম আ ৷	আ আ অ অ
		বাবা বা	বা বা ব ব
		সাপ সা	সা সা স স
		রস র	র র রা রা

One of its chief advantages is that very quick progress can be made, but on the other hand, it requires a high degree of training and skill on the part of the teacher.

It is evident from what has been stated above, that there is no fool-proof method that will hold good for all situations. Each has its advantages and disadvantages. The method that will be adopted by a government or an organization would depend on the structure of the language, and the skill of the teacher.

The type of audience also will make some difference in the method used. Many teachers use the same methods for adults as well as children, overlooking some fundamental differences between the two. Unlike children, adults have maturity, practical judgement and well-developed language habits. Moreover, they dislike a large amount of repetition and are impatient of slow progress. Finally, it must be remembered that adults attend literacy centres voluntarily, unlike children who are forced to go to school. Maintaining their interest through a well-constructed primer is of vital importance. The method to be chosen to teach a particular group of adults, would therefore have to be easy to teach and learn, time-saving and in conformity with adult psychology. The reading material for adults, has also to be related to their interests and the vocabulary should be selected to a great extent from actual adult language habits.

Organisation of literacy training:

The particular way a country will organise its drive for literacy, will depend naturally on the resources available. In India, either because the resources are too thinly spread out, or because of an insufficient awareness about the need for literacy, not much progress has been made. Perfunctory attempts at making people literate have been made here and there; but they have not led to anything substantial because there was no consistent or planned approach.

In the first place, the goal has to be clearly defined. What is the standard of literacy that we want an illiterate adult to attain? Is it just to enable him to sign his name only or is it more than that? According to William S. Gray, the minimum goal for an adult should be to attain functional literacy which will enable him 'to engage effectively in all those activities in which literacy is normally assumed in his culture or group'. A functionally literate person should be able to read and write independently, all that is useful to him within the level of his experience.

To come down to brass tacks, this means that a literate adult should be able to read newspapers, read and write postcards, read and sign registered documents, and so on.

With the goal defined, a target date has to be set for making

the population literate. This can be 25 years or more. But unfortunately India seems to have set no such target date. Russia succeeded in liquidating literacy because, she set out from the beginning to make all her people literate within a specified number of years.

Apart from setting a general target about the liquidation of illiteracy for the whole country, we have to divide an adult's progress towards literacy into a number of periods or stages. After, for instance, adults have learnt to read, but not fluently, they have to be taken to the final stage of literacy according to the conception of literacy given above. In the neoliterate stage, we must see that they do not lapse into illiteracy. For this, books for neoliterates will have to be produced and library facilities made available. In some districts of Bombay, for instance, a very high percentage of literacy was achieved, but due to inadequate follow-up, many of the literates subsequently relapsed into illiteracy.

The training of teachers is a problem of no less magnitude. In rural areas where the great majority of people live, the teachers are not only untrained, but many have fixed prejudices. This results in their using the same primers for both children and adults and applying stereotyped and dull methods of teaching.

Finally, who should organise and supervise this work, through the length and breadth of the country? The Community Development Organisation, of course, is in a good position to do this, particularly in rural areas. With its field staff reaching down to the village level and a trained Social Education Organiser at the Block level, literacy work should not normally suffer in the Blocks. At the moment, the greatest emphasis in India's National Extension Service Blocks is laid on food production. But it is doubtful if food production can be boosted without the propagation of literacy side by side. Research has shown that improved methods are more quickly adopted by literate people than by illiterate people. Along with agricultural programmes, literacy drives should, therefore, be equally encouraged.

The problem is gigantic and it cannot be solved in one day. But with the concerted efforts of all—government, voluntary agencies and individuals, and with a co-ordinated

and planned approach, India like Japan or Russia can overcome this problem.

Section II

'UTILISATION OF BOOKS'

Apart from the colossal problem of making her vast population literate and of preventing them from lapsing into illiteracy, India has problems with regard to the literates also. The over-riding problem is—how to develop among literate people, a taste for serious reading? Most educated adults seem to lose the habit of doing any serious reading after they leave schools or colleges. When they come home from office after a day's work, they are either too exhausted to read or if they read anything at all, it is usually trash. At best they read newspapers and some read manuals or technical publications connected with their specific jobs. But the majority while away their time either gossiping with friends or playing cards.

As a consequence, a large number of literate people are strikingly ill-informed on serious matters. Yet, to survive as a democracy, India needs not only a literate population but also a well-informed population. This is the challenge she faces.

Causes of lack of interest in reading:

Many factors are responsible for this lack of interest in serious literature. In the first place, working people are pressed for time. Many of them who have to work far away, exhaust themselves not only by working but by travelling to and from their places of residence, with the result that when they come home at the end of the day, they are too exhausted to have any zest for reading.

Lack of library facilities is the second reason. Good libraries are few and even fewer have stocks of serious books. The reading facilities in the libraries are also not conducive for serious study.

Thirdly, and perhaps the most important reason of all, is that employers, teachers, librarians, and others do not exert themselves to stimulate people's interest in serious reading. If interest in serious books is once generated, there will be a public demand for good libraries and the need will be met eventually.

Moreover, if people are interested in serious reading, they will find the time for it. Sir Winston Churchill, one of the busiest men of his day, has stated that just before going to bed he used to write about 10 to 15 lines every night. This regular reading and writing habit made him eventually a great writer.

Sir Winston may be an exception. But it is surprising what an enormous amount of serious reading can be done, if one reads, for let us say an hour, or even half an hour every day. The important thing is to keep up the reading habit. If this is done, other difficulties can be surmounted. A man reading a serious book, for even half an hour every day, is bound to expand his mental horizon considerably and become more efficient in the end.

Type of reading:

We often read a book because we are interested in the book itself. We like the author and the attractive way he writes. We, therefore, read from cover to cover. Fictions, biographies and travel books normally interest us this way.

But more often, we read a serious book to gather information. We may be bothered by a social, political or technical problem and we want to know more about it. Or simply, we may have developed an interest on a particular subject and we want to increase our knowledge on it. Here we may read one book if it gives us exhaustive information. But usually we read particular sections from a number of books, to gather facts, opinions and comprehensive knowledge on a particular subject. Our focus of interest is not a particular book, but a particular subject.

Sometimes, of course, an outstanding book on a serious subject merits exhaustive reading. These books not only supply us with facts or knowledge, but reading them is an intellectual experience in itself.

How to develop better taste in reading:

Taste in both these types of reading, can be developed early in life. Parents and particularly teachers have a great responsibility in this.

The reading of interesting and vivid descriptions, exciting incidents and brief characterisation will arouse a student's desire to hear more or to read from the book. Either before or after reading, the teacher should explain how the material is related to the class activity. He can also give pertinent facts about the book and indicate other parts which are interesting and readable.

No formal method of stimulating interest will surpass that of frequent quotations and allusions. This is particularly true of literature; but in other subjects too, appreciation and mention of authors and books repeatedly is likely to pay dividends.

From time to time, the teacher may bring to the class a new book or an old one that the students have overlooked and exhibit it for inspection. He can tell his pupils why he thinks they will be interested in it. His description or summary may well include some specific citation which shows its relevance to the work of the class.

An important way in which intellectual interests can be stimulated, is by giving regular assignments to students. The nature of the assignment will depend on whether the teacher wants his students to focus his attention on a particular book or on a particular topic.

In case the assignment is for a particular book, the teacher may ask his students to look for the name of the author, his background, his style of writing, his logic, his arrangement of the subject matter and finally the information and learning he has been able to impart through the book. These guide points will certainly direct the students' minds to reading the book in a planned and purposive manner.

If, however, the teacher wants his pupils to gather information on a particular subject, he may pose them a problem and suggest them a bibliography. The students will read particular sections from a number of books bearing on the problem. This type of assignment, of course, involves much more organised reading than in the first case and can be

given to high school or college students who have attained maturity, power of discrimination and desire to gain knowledge on different subjects.

Whatever the nature of the assignment, the students should report back to the class. If a particular book is being recommended, the student who has read it, should tell the class why he is recommending the book, what he has found so interesting in the book, etc. If the assignment is problem-centred, an individual or a group of students who were studying the problem, can read to the class a paper which will describe the problem, the related facts and the solution to it. The over-all calibre of the final report is an excellent indication of how well and extensively the students have read.

Other problems:

Even if we succeed in developing a taste for serious reading among our literate public, we still have to solve certain other problems. Our literate public must be taught some new skills in reading. As people are hard-pressed for time, they must learn how to extract the most benefit from a book within the shortest possible period. Secondly, they must also learn how to retain what they have read and thirdly, and this is the most important of all, they must learn how to comprehend what they read.

It may be argued that all these are functions of intelligence. An intelligent person can automatically master these techniques. But this is doubtful. Research and repeated experiments with different groups of people having approximately the same intelligence have proved that people trained to solve the problems mentioned above, have done better than others, who have not been so trained. Obviously, of course, intelligence is a factor. Dull people find it much more difficult to master these skills. But with training, a man of average intelligence can read quickly and understand and retain what he reads.

Why do we read badly?

An average educated adult, according to the authorities, reads about 200-250 words per minute and comprehends about 70 per cent of what he reads. This in itself does not

appear too bad. But when we are told further that this is just about the speed and comprehension level of an average sixth-grade child, the situation looks less cheerful. It certainly indicates that we do not progress in our rate of reading and level of comprehension, with years. If anything, we deteriorate.

There are a number of reasons for this. The most important reason is lack of concentration. We do not think while we are reading. We merely read to cover a number of pages. As a result, we comprehend little and soon forget what we have read.

Poor concentration may be due to some weakness in temperament, or more likely to bad habits cultivated in childhood. Often it is due to physical distractions, noise, bad lighting, mental worries and fatigue.

Apart from lack of concentration there are some minor causes, which unfortunately affect the ability to read well. Regression is one such cause. We convince ourselves while reading that we have not read; we look back again recording the words our eyes have just passed over. This slows down our speed of reading considerably.

Word-by-word perusal, mumbling or making lip movements during reading, are often bad habits which retard our speed. Defective movement of the eye is another factor. Normally, people read from left to right and then go over diagonally to the next line. But some cannot do this. They read in the usual way but cannot go over to the next line diagonally. Instead their eyes travel back over the same line in a reverse direction and when they reach the extreme left, they vertically drop down to the beginning of the next line. Needless to say, this slows down the speed of reading considerably.

HOW TO OVERCOME THE DEFECTS?

(a) *Concentration*: Achieving concentration is no easy matter. Particularly if one is overworked and very tired, concentration will be difficult, if not impossible to attain. In fact, it is not advisable to read under these conditions.

Mental worry is also a serious barrier. But on the other hand, reading a book with determination may remove one's worries temporarily at least.

Most of the other handicaps can be mastered however,

provided one has interest in what one reads. Physical distractions and even noise may not affect a man's concentration, if he has intense interest, either in the book or the subject he is studying. Developing interest or motivation for study is then the main remedy for achieving concentration. Interest in reading is the basic driving factor which will enable a man to concentrate, comprehend, and retain what he reads.

(b) *Other defects*: Mumbling while reading, shaking the head, pointing with the finger at every word, are minor defects and can be cured with constant practice.

Word-by-word reading is a major barrier. It may be due to a weak vocabulary in which case the remedy lies in enlarging one's stock of words.

But it may be due to a bad habit which the reader has formed. Here the remedy will lie in his trying to master the technique of taking in a whole phrase or sentence at a glance, rather than a particular word. This will not only speed up his reading, but improve his comprehension. For words, torn out of context, may mean something quite different from what the author intended them to mean. If a man concentrates on words all the time, the meaning of the whole sentence may elude him. It may sound like a paradox, but it is not really so. Knowledge comes in 'patterns' and 'wholes' and not in parts or piecemeal. Unless the meaning of the whole sentence dawns on us in a flash, mere addition of the parts will not make it clear.

Overcoming defective eye movement:

Defective eye movements which we have described earlier, can be overcome by a number of eye exercises such as the following:

O	O	O	O	O
X	X	X	X	X
O	O	O	O	O
X	X	X	X	X
O	O	O	O	O
X	X	X	X	X

In the beginning, one uses a page prepared on the type-

writer as shown above. The instructions are to go across the top line, glancing once at each letter, then follow the diagonal to the second line and so on down the page.

At first, the reader goes over this page three to five times, gradually speeding up. After the reader has become skilful in using this page, a second page is used in which single words replace the meaningless letters. A third page uses widely spaced phrases, three or four at a time.

These exercises are meant to serve a small section of abnormal readers, who due to habit or some other fixation in childhood cannot move smoothly from one line to the other.

Increasing the eye span:

But what about the normal readers? Can their speed of reading be stepped up by improved eye-movements? The answer is in the affirmative. A man can speed up his reading by widening his eye span.

The normal reader, while reading, sees at most two or three words simultaneously and recognises them. The more words he can see and recognise, the quicker he can read.

There are a number of exercises to improve the eye span, i.e. the ability to take in a large number of words both on the left as well as on the right at one glance.

One of the usual devices is to use certain phrases arranged in a pyramidal fashion getting wider and wider as we progress down the page, as follows:

	To read	
	↑	
	How to read	
	↑	
	How to read a book	
	↑	
	How to read a book properly	
	↑	
	How to read a book properly and rapidly	
	↑	
	How to read properly, rapidly and with understanding	
	↑	
How to read properly, rapidly with understanding and retain it.		

We can then take a card and draw an arrow pointing upwards about midway across the card, with the point of the arrow pointing to the edge of the card, as in the under-noted illustration:

The card is now placed over the phrases with the point of the arrow pointing to the black guide line. We now draw the card down the page, so that phrase after phrase becomes visible. If we carefully look only at the point of the arrow, we can then assess how many words on either side we can take in. If we do not cheat, i.e. if we do not look sideways we shall probably be able to take in only a few words at first. But with repeated practice every day for about 5 to 10 minutes with different phrases, we can continually go on increasing our eye span till we reach the limit of our physical possibilities. In this way, it may be possible to read an entire line at one glance and understand the meaning of it. This would certainly speed up our reading considerably.

How to utilise a book?

Whether we are reading for knowledge or enjoyment, we must be discriminating in our choice of books. As we are usually pressed for time, we must also know how to read a book quickly and get the best out of it.

In order to get the maximum benefit out of a book, there are certain other steps a man can follow. He should pay attention to the name of the author and his background if it is given on the cover page. This would give him an idea about the author's specialization and his bias, which are helpful to the reader. If, for instance, he notes the author's bias, he can be warned against accepting some of the author's opinions glibly. If again, he is trying to quote him frequently, he can do so with confidence if he knows, for instance, that the author is a specialist in a particular field.

Careful attention should be paid in reading the title of the book. The titles are of aid in giving us some idea about what the book is about. Sometimes we may be misled by a wrong title and it would be a stimulating mental exercise for the reader to suggest an alternative title to the book.

The name of the publisher gives some idea about the quality

of the book. Good publishers do not usually publish bad books or books from unknown authors.

While looking at the name of the publisher, the date of the book should also be checked. An old book on a subject which is continually expanding with research and experience, as for instance, 'community development', will definitely be of less value than the most recent publication on the subject.

The preface should be read carefully. Most of us do not do so. But this will afford us a clear idea about the purpose of the author and the scope and limitation of the book. In selecting a book, this should be an important criterion. We can then know what we are to look for in the book and so avoid disappointment, if we want something that is not intended by the author.

The contents of a book also merit close scrutiny. Through the contents, a reader can acquire an indication about the plan of presentation. The contents also help the reader in other ways. If it is a bulky tome and the reader does not have leisure to wade through the whole of it, he can skip many portions and concentrate on that chapter or section of the book which is relevant for his purpose.

Some important reading habits:

The normal reader with average intelligence, chooses his book and settles down to read. He has, however, a limited amount of time. How will he finish his reading, comprehend and retain what he has read, within the time at his disposal?

This can be accomplished by following some important methods of reading. As has been stated above, it may not be necessary for him to read the whole book. He can select those portions from the contents which will be useful for him. This is the first step.

The next step will be to give a rapid glance through the chapter he intends to read. Each chapter has certain sub-headings either at the head of each paragraph or at the head of a number of paragraphs. He should read these sub-headings quickly as well as the summary at the end. He would then know at once, what the author is intending to express in this particular chapter. It would also confirm, whether he has selected the right chapter for reading. Thirdly, by doing

this, he will put himself in the author's way of thinking, which is important for comprehension and quick reading.

Reading the paragraphs:

He now concentrates on reading each paragraph separately. Reading a paragraph is a technique in itself. The reader must look for the arrangement of facts within the paragraph and the basic structure of thoughts that each paragraph represents.

There are four types of paragraphs. The most common is the paragraph which revolves round one thought and by far the majority do. Within the paragraph we find one sentence which states clearly the main thought of the paragraph. This sentence is called the 'topic sentence', which is a broad general statement about the dominant *noun* in the paragraph. In the rest of the paragraph, the author usually explains actually what he had in mind when he wrote the topic sentence.

Secondly, there are paragraphs where there may not be a topic sentence. There may be a number of sentences loosely hanging together. Here is a typical example:

In Hindi *darvesh* means 'messenger', whereas in Bengali, it is a kind of 'sweetmeat'. In Hindi *kam* means 'work' whereas in Bengali it means 'desire'; again in Hindi *chhati* means 'chest' whereas in Bengali it means 'umbrella'.

It is obvious that there is no topic sentence in the paragraph above, round which the paragraph revolves. Each sentence is independent of the other, but they are all trying to express one dominant idea which is—difference in the meaning of the same word in Bengali and Hindi. As soon as we have grasped the dominant idea, we know what the author is getting at. The sentences given in the paragraph are merely examples of this dominant idea.

Thirdly, there is another type of paragraph which on the surface looks a great deal like the paragraph without a topic sentence. It is the transitional paragraph. This is a special type of paragraph almost purely functional in nature, with slight thought-content. The transitional paragraph is usually found as a bridge between large blocks of thought. The purpose of the transitional paragraph is to lead the reader safely and smoothly from one topic which has already been discussed

to a new topic. Fortunately, these paragraphs do not occur very frequently.

Lastly, there are some paragraphs that do not apparently fit into the normal pattern of the paragraph structure. Sometimes one paragraph is broken up into two or more or contains two main thoughts. These paragraphs are not only unconventional; they are also examples of bad writing. They show that the author has not been able to organise his thinking process systematically.

The most common type of paragraph fortunately has a topic sentence. By practice we can become very successful in locating the topic sentence quickly. We should constantly ask ourselves whether any particular statement sums up everything else that the paragraph contains or whether it is just a statement of a fact which, with other statements similar to it, point to a broad idea.

The topic sentence either lies at the beginning of the paragraph or at the end and sometimes in the middle. We should look for it in these three places. A quick glance at the paragraph, therefore, would tell us whether we have got the topic sentence or not. If we have not, the paragraph may be a transitional paragraph connected to a previous one or a paragraph without a topic sentence. In case of the latter, we have to sense the central idea which the author is driving at and immediately frame a topic statement in our own thinking.

After the topic sentence has been located, we should ask ourselves what it means. In a well-written paragraph, the topic sentence is the master sentence.

Lastly, we should remember that while reading words, we shall only read those which give us the thought which the author is attempting to convey. We should, therefore, try to be completely cognisant of what the author is saying without the clutter of all the words which he has used.

Of course, the reader must be clear in his mind on what he wants. If he is interested in the author's ideas, he glances at first through the chapters and tries to understand their broad basic plan; he then looks at the sub-titles and the arrangements of facts within the paragraph. He knows that a piece of writing is more easily comprehended, if he skims over it first. It also tells him whether the material is compre-

hensible or too difficult and the speed with which he should read it.

If he is reading a novel, he can sample a few pages to form an opinion as to whether the novel is worth reading.

If he is looking for a particular fact, when he runs his eyes rapidly over the material he does not absorb its meaning, but merely notices that what he is looking for is not there. When he comes to the desired item, it seems to stand out as if in bold-faced type. Some people are able to develop an almost incredible speed in this type of skimming.

Finally, it should be remembered that there is no one rate of reading that is appropriate for all situations. The efficient reader varies his rate according to his purpose and the requirements of the material. When a man is reading fiction, he will naturally read faster than when he is doing serious reading. Because, in the case of fiction he does not have to remember, but in the case of serious reading he must not only understand, but also remember and evaluate what he has read. This will slow down his speed to some extent.

How to comprehend:

It has already been stated that comprehension will be difficult unless there is concentration and concentration itself will be difficult unless there is interest. The whole thing is, therefore, like a cycle. The reader develops intense interest in the subject or in a book. This helps him to concentrate which in its turn, makes comprehension easier. Comprehension, on its part, will increase the speed of reading and help retain what one reads.

Let us now assume that interest and concentration have been achieved. Comprehension will be easy, but not automatic. The reader will have to adopt certain methods to heighten the level of his comprehension. The first step is to look for the author's purpose in writing the book. Why did the author write this? The preface should give us the answer. When reading, therefore, we should keep on reminding ourselves about what the author is saying and invest the words we read, with a swarm of questions. The interrogative mood of a reader does not only show that he is mentally awake, but it also helps in other matters such as assimilation of what he is

reading and retention. The sort of questions that a reader should ask would be: What is the main idea that the author is presenting here? How is he organising his thoughts? Is there a pattern of presenting the facts and what is it? What sort of person wrote this?

When reading through a paragraph, the reader may enquire: Is the author thinking chronologically, statistically or logically? Do the facts meet our eyes under a neat, first, second and third arrangement? Are there data for his opinions? Is his process informal and rambling, or closely knit and formal?

He can also turn the section headlines into questions. For instance, if the headline is 'Improved Methods of Learning', it can be framed into a question, e.g. 'What are the improved methods of learning?' The reader should now read that section as an answer to the question. This will provide a problem and a solution which are important factors in rousing interest. After a particular section has been read, the reader can go over mentally, the points that have been discussed. The sort of questions that would help in this review are:

- (a) What is the general sub-division of the chapter that is now being discussed?
- (b) How many such sub-divisions of thought have been discussed in this chapter and what were they entitled?
- (c) What was the last principal thought presented in the paragraph immediately preceding this question?
- (d) Have I been conscious of reading any of the preceding paragraphs in a questioning mood?

One of the most valuable skills in this respect is the ability to find out the main idea or central idea in what one reads. To be able to select the most important thought from a mass of words, calls for a form of reasoning which involves comparison and selection. Different kinds of practices can be tried in developing this type of comprehension. For instance, in informational material we can ask the students or ourselves, the main ideas in each paragraph. The questions can then take the form of multiple-choice items in which the most identical statements of the main idea is to be selected from other statements.

Secondly, we can practise improvising titles for a para-

graph by reading the paragraph without looking at the subtitle. This can be done for both single paragraphs and complex sections.

Details can be assimilated, if the reader develops the habit of putting the material he has learnt into categories. Reading should be done with a view to understanding and not merely to covering pages.

Another good practice is to explain some of the ideas read in a book to one's friend. Even though the latter may not need the explanation, it will help the reader in assimilating the lesson from a book. For we can only assimilate when we can explain, what we have learnt, to others.

Ability to generalise, relating ideas to previously encountered ideas, distinguishing facts from opinions and selecting relevant materials, are all essential for comprehension. They can be developed through proper mental-training and constant reading-practice.

How to retain what we read?

The most important factors in memory are interest and the will to remember. It is surprising what we can remember when we want to remember. When one is determined to remember, one's attention seems better concentrated and one tends to read more effectively. Interest in what we are reading will ultimately determine our retention. We forget things in which we are either not interested or which are unpleasant. We generally remember things which serve our ends, even if they are selfish ends.

Secondly, the material to be remembered must be selected. We cannot hope to remember everything. Therefore, certain points should be singled out and jotted down as notes.

To remember well, we should give each paragraph a second reading. Even if we do not we should review in our minds the points that have been discussed. If there is time, it is desirable to check one's recall by re-reading.

An important aid to retention is taking notes from books or underlining the main points. Note-taking should be done in one's own words and only after reading the whole section. The reason for this is that if one starts writing immediately after reading one line, the tendency will be to write too

much. Moreover, it may be difficult to know which is important and which is not. It is better, therefore, to read through the entire sub-section and ponder over the points that were discussed. A pattern will form and the reader can write out certain key-phrases from memory, which should recall the whole lesson to his mind when he reads it again.

Alternatively, he can mark the important points in a book with a light pencil during his first reading. If he is reading a number of books on the same subject, he marks them in a similar way. During his second reading, he only goes over the points which he has marked in all the books, and jots them down on a piece of paper, organising them logically into a system or pattern of thought. If he can do this regularly, he will achieve probably the highest degree of skill in reading and utilising books.

Development of critical reading ability:

But mere understanding of what the author means is not our ultimate aim in reading. We should be able to evaluate what we read, e.g. whether the facts are correct, the opinions are biased, whether the logic is sound, and so on. Unless we do this, we will not be deriving ultimate benefit from our reading which is not only to collect facts but to develop independent opinions ourselves.

An important type of critical reading involves comparison of two or more sources of information. That is why reading many books on one topic is helpful. It not only gives us a good knowledge of the topic, but we can compare the relative merit or demerit of each book.

A second type of critical reading involves considering new ideas or information in the light of one's previous knowledge and beliefs. A thoughtful reader asks himself: is it reasonable? Is it possible? He becomes deeply alert when he finds disagreement with what he has previously read. Naturally this type of critical reading would depend on the scope and extent of a reader's previous knowledge.

How to utilise library books:

We have discussed earlier that one of the main reasons why adults do not take to reading serious literature is the

lack of library facilities in India. It will take some time to make good the deficiency. But where we have libraries, we should see that they are properly utilised. In schools and colleges and particularly in our training centres, our teachers and librarians have a number of responsibilities in this.

When choosing library books, for purchase for instance, teachers should first measure the capacity of their students and their interests and needs. If there are a large number of students who are relatively poor readers or whose interest in reading has not yet been aroused, the teacher should endeavour to select the books which are relatively easy to read.

The teacher's judgement in choosing books should be grounded upon a series of careful observations of what his students usually read. The register maintained in the library will give him an important clue. He can know from this, how many times a book has been read and what types of books are usually read by his students.

A teacher should ask himself while choosing books for the library whether the various subjects which are taught in the Institutions, have been properly represented. Secondly, whether both the good and the poor readers have been provided for; and thirdly, whether he has some knowledge about the books or the authors he is selecting, to defend his choice.

Apart from the normal subjects, there should be some reference books in a library for both the librarian and the teacher. These books would give them an idea about general educational matter, library management and organisation which would be useful to them.

The teacher should know the library thoroughly. He must know what is available and where to find it. He must also know what is lacking. He should visit the library frequently not only to consult the books himself but to observe how his students study.

Each librarian can expect from a teacher, suggestions about the books on particular subjects which should be bought and help in the development of the library skills.

The teacher on his part can also expect from the librarian, assistance in finding materials on given topics, intimation about the arrival of new books, and information about the reading habits of the students.

Librarians have the special responsibility of rousing interest in serious reading. They should themselves be well informed, so that they can talk about new books to the students. They should also arrange for attractive bulletin-board displays giving information that can be found in different types of reference works.

Guided Reading in C.D. training institutions:

In training institutions for community development workers, both book reviews on particular books as well as individual or group written assignments, involving the reading of a number of books, have to be encouraged.

Library reading deserves pride of place in our curriculum. Unless our extension workers enlarge their vision or sharpen their minds by constant reading, they will not be in a position to grapple with the new problems which are continually besetting us.

It will be fitting to conclude this section by quoting Sri K. S. V. Raman, I. C. S., Ex Development Commissioner, Behar, India. who says:

‘Working faster implies a background of well-analysed information and thinking on a variety of topics including the solution of similar problems found by others as well as a good grip of the picture as a whole, and how each new item fits in. Starting a priori, reading up the technical administrative information and then deciding a question on the factors constituting it is tiresome work, takes more time and has more chances of error; in any case there will be little time for it. The daily reading habit, the inconspicuous but steady accumulation of knowledge and the right outlook is vital. General study and specific pursuit of any subject of interest is not only an attractive change from the daily routine but a necessity.’

CHAPTER FIVE

CASE STUDY

What is it?

Another teaching method now increasingly being used in universities and training institutions, is case study. By unfolding before the readers or listeners, a situation or certain aspects in the life of a person exactly as they happened at a certain place and time, case studies make learning vivid, interesting and realistic. Even if they do not provide learning by direct experience, they provide learning at least by contrived experience. The case study method, therefore, lies somewhere half-way between the impersonal academic learning derived usually from books and the intensely personal practical learning imparted through direct field experience.

Certain points about case studies, should be noted. In the first place, they are studies in depth. They try to examine, as far as possible, the multiplicity of factors that enter into a situation and their inter-relationship. They plumb the depths of human feelings and try to bring to the surface the seemingly inexplicable causes of human behaviour. Secondly, case studies are not mass studies. Each study is unique in itself, referring to a particular individual or situation. Its emphasis is on qualitative analysis.

However, case studies can also, to a limited extent, be subjected to quantitative analysis provided a number of studies are conducted on the same problem in different areas and the methods adopted in the selection of cases and the responses of people, are standardised into fixed categories. Moreover, long-term research often requires considerable exploratory work and a few representative case studies undertaken during this phase can provide a solid basis for the construction of the methods to be used in the research.

Thirdly, case studies have a specific focus, limited by time and space. When we are making a case study of a person for instance, we do not study him from the moment of his birth. We take only a certain limited period of his life and we study certain aspects of his life intensely.

How do we learn from case studies?

Although it has increased in importance recently, teaching by the case method is by no means new. Certain faculties like medicine and law have been employing this method for a long time. But here the method of teaching and learning has been through abstraction and generalisation. When a doctor or a medical student studies a case, he is not studying the man or his behaviour or the processes going on in the patient's mind; he is mainly studying his disease and his symptoms. After studying a number of such cases, he may draw certain conclusions about the disease and consider the treatment. Similarly, the law student is not interested in the criminal as a man or his motive but in the legal principles involved in the crime.

It is precisely on this point, that the teaching through case studies has undergone a certain shift in emphasis, particularly since World War II. Our goal now being man, we do not emphasise in our teaching, abstract principles or generalisations from certain actions. We try to understand the man behind the action—his behaviour, his innermost thoughts and his dreams. Through such understanding, we learn.

But we do not only learn about other people. We learn about ourselves too and how we would act in a similar situation. To the extent a man can project himself into the situation he is studying, he learns. If the case is outside his realm of experience and he cannot visualise himself in any situation like that, its teaching value would be small.

Case studies also teach that there are several ways of tackling a problem or responding to an actual situation. From this, we work out as a next step, the particular choice of alternatives or the course of action we ourselves would have followed in an identical situation.

To sum up, case studies furnish us with a method of systematically studying a situation or a person including ourselves. They give us an insight into problems and the inter-relationship of different factors that enter into a situation.

Different approaches to case studies:

There are different approaches to teaching through case studies. Some emphasise psychological factors like under-

standing individual and group behaviour, points of view, and so on. Others try to focus attention on a problem, either suggesting a solution themselves or leaving the solution to the class. Still others would like the students to develop an analytical approach to social change and the various factors that enter into a situation resulting in change. The case material that is chosen for presentation to the class, will depend on the teacher's point of view and what he is trying to emphasise.

Lynton Method:

A well-known proponent of the psychological approach is Mr. Rolf P. Lynton who has chosen his case material from small and seemingly inconspicuous incidents. Most of the cases he relates in *Asican Cases* are such that can happen anywhere at any time. But the way Mr. Lynton is able to build up discussion out of them, getting his students more and more interested, restless and involved, shows what important use can be made of this type of case in the classroom.

The technical value of this type of approach rests in the students' exploring their own attitudes or behaviour, as if by personal analogy. These cases help them to learn how people in groups feel and interact. A case student learns by seeing himself as Mr. X of the case in many ways and this enables him to reflect about himself.

Another effect of this type of approach develops understanding about different points of view. The same incident can be described differently by different people. This was dramatically shown a few years ago, by a famous Japanese Film called 'Rasho Mon'. A simple incident in which a rich man, his wife and a robber were involved, was described by four witnesses in four different ways. All four saw the incident and described it but only from a personal point of view. All of them were correct, but only partially. This film tried to express what philosophers throughout the ages have stated that reality is many-sided and one man alone can never visualise the whole of it.

This is one of the important reasons for understanding diverse points of view and learning from others. When the

students read about an incident described in a case, they should not only try to grasp the meaning of particular events, but also the meanings different individuals attached to the same incident. This would develop their breadth of vision.

Sometimes students may begin discussion not by dilating on the feelings of different people in the case, but by raising certain abstract issues. Suppose for instance, there is a case of a teacher who disagrees with the regulations of a particular school and takes his students to some entertainment show for which he loses his job. The boys take it hard, speak to the authorities and threaten a strike on behalf of the teacher, with the result that the teacher is reinstated but the boys receive punishment for the breach of discipline.

In a case like this, the students may not discuss at the beginning the immediate facts of the case, but questions like: whether discipline is preferable to gaining popularity etc. The Instructor by skilful questioning can place a number of choices before the students.

In discussions of this type, students develop understanding of other people by projecting themselves into the shoes of others. This type of learning is very similar to what we gain from role playing when we imagine ourselves as different people. The main emphasis in this type of case teaching is developing understanding or feelings and not suggesting solutions so much. The students have to work it out themselves after they gain an insight into the individual or group feeling and behaviour.

The Spicer Method:

Another method of dealing with case studies has been developed by Spicer in his book *Human Problems in Technological Change*. The emphasis in the cases related by Spicer, is on the social or material changes brought about by some technological invention. Spicer's method of presenting a case is quite novel. He first gives the problem which is posed in the form of a question to his readers. A certain technological change is going to be introduced in a certain situation. What would be the effect on the society? This is the question.

He now gives certain outlines about the society, the social organisation, the leadership structure and other factors.

Then follows a section which deals with a chronological account of events that are associated with the introduction of the new technique. The fourth section deals with the outcome. Finally, Spicer gives his analysis and reasons why things happened the way they did.

Spicer asks his readers to read the first three sections and then predict the outcome and analyse the causes themselves. After this has been done, the readers can turn to the writer's description of the outcome and the analysis. This makes Spicer's method of treating cases almost like algebraic equations which are worked out step by step. This method of teaching not only develops keen intellectual ability on the part of the students, but keeps up their interest also, because of its quality of suspense. The readers like to know whether the outcome they predict from the facts or their analysis, tallies with that of the author.

We have tried out the Spicer method of teaching and found it to be very useful. We are giving below a short sample of one of the cases which was treated in this way.

EXAMPLE: *'The story of a woman's project'.*

Problem:

In Amadpur village in Memari N.E.S. Block, village women lived, as elsewhere in India, a narrow, secluded life, dependant entirely for their livelihood on their menfolk. They seldom went out of their houses or met each other; their world was bounded entirely by the four walls of their homes. They were married early and in every way their mode of life was determined by their menfolk.

The village was caste and faction-ridden. The people were seldom united, not even during Durga Puja, as each village group held its own puja.

The main occupation of the villagers was agriculture. There were, however, one or two groceries in the village, supplying daily necessities. The main communication of the village with the outside world was over a kutchra road.

In this village, a number of cottage industries such as *Satranchi* or *Durrie* manufacture, mat-making, and *Ambar Chharka*, were introduced among the women.

What changes in the social and economic life of the village, as a whole, could be expected from the introduction of these industries among women?

The programme and the course of events following it:

The project started in 1956. The village leaders were consulted and to earn their good will, an amenities programme was initiated to benefit everybody. A mobile medical unit, milk feeding for expectant mothers and children and literacy classes for illiterate adults were started.

After some preparatory work, two or three Mahila Samities were opened in Amadpur, which was a big village and through them mat and *satranchi* making was introduced among village women. The reason why mat-making was thought of, was because it could be done in the home by women in their spare time; secondly, mat-sticks could be procured from an adjoining area and the demand for mats was also great, and lastly, it was easy to learn and manufacture.

As preparatory work had already been done, the Project workers did not find much difficulty in interesting local women in this occupation. After individual contacts and house-to-house visits, a demonstration would be arranged in one of the women's houses and her neighbours would be invited to witness it. Among the Bagdi, Hanri and Muslim women, these method demonstrations were much in vogue.

This industry spread rapidly and although all women could not spend the same time on it, everyone was capable of earning on an average, anything from 50 to 75 paise a day. To provide incentive, the mat-makers from all the villages were given their first wages in a public meeting presided over by a prominent member of the public.

Middle-class women, however, soon began to express their dislike of weaving coarse mats. In their view, it was not only a lowly occupation, but their taste demanded something more artistic. Moreover, coarse mats did not fetch a high price. So, to please them, the manufacture of small mats with fine mat-sticks and with artistic designs was evolved.

Next came a *Durrie* centre for the young women of Amadpur. At first only 5 looms were installed. The accommodation for the work-shed was provided by an elderly lady of some

social status. A second shed with 5 more looms was opened in another locality shortly afterwards, at the initiative of another benevolent old lady.

Another scheme that was introduced towards the end of 1957 was *chharka* spinning. Although the daily earnings would be about 50 paise, this was mainly intended for widows and old people who could do this during their spare time at home. A large number of *chharkas* were obtained and distributed in individual homes and in Mahila Samities. It was planned that the yarn spun by the women could be used in the *Durrie* Centres and would thus find a ready market.

But *chharka* spinning did not really make much headway. One of the main reasons was, perhaps, the low rate of earning; another reason was that it was not pursued seriously enough by the Project workers. It lingered on for some time in mahila samities, but went out with the going away of the particular Project worker who was in charge.

By the end of 1956, economic schemes had begun to make some headway. But corresponding progress was not being maintained in education or other Social Schemes. On the contrary, health and educational schemes were slowly wound up after the industries had been established.

The third phase began towards the end of 1957. The Project workers and the instructors found it difficult to supervise production over such a wide area. Hence, it was considered expedient to concentrate all productive units in one place. Mat-making which by its very nature is a decentralised industry, was not disturbed. Moreover, as it did not require much skill, its production did not require constant supervision. But the handloom was a different matter. It was considered essential to put all the looms under one shed in the interest of efficient management.

Thus by the end of 1957, the two centres in Amadpur were amalgamated into one with 10 looms. Another important consideration in consolidating the centres, was developing a feeling of unity among the workers. It was considered necessary that the workers must have one central organisation where problems common to all, might be discussed and solutions sought.

Soon, a central organisation was achieved. But it still had

different sections like the mat section, and the handloom section. The keeping of different sections caused trouble. Sectional attitudes among workers producing different types of products developed. This stood in the way of forming a general co-operative society which was the ultimate objective. Moreover, all the industries were not operating with equal efficiency. Some of the sections, it was felt, would inevitably collapse if their losses were not met from profits earned in other sections. So, with these considerations in mind, the separate accounts of different sections were all merged into one general account, and a co-operative society was formed in 1958.

The development of different industries after the society was formed, assumed greater momentum. With the acquisition of skill, better quality products and new lines, like towels, bed-covers, curtains, *asans*, were opened up. An ingenious invention was the table mat.

Towards the middle of 1958, two further industries were attempted. One was match-making and the other was bee-keeping. Both these centres were started by the Khadi Commission and both collapsed eventually. Match-making was undertaken by the widows in a shed constructed by the Industries Department, the Instructors being provided by the Khadi Commission. The cost of production of the matches was high and they could not compete in the market.

Beekeeping lingered on for some time and has now almost disappeared because of the lack of follow-up and the withdrawal of the Instructor by the Khadi Commission.

Present Position:

Since 1961, the cottage industries have developed unhindered. The total volume of sales has increased from Rs. 65,429 in 1957-58 to Rs. 1,54,476 in 1962-63. The total profits per year have increased over the same period from Rs. 7,500 to Rs. 30,000 approximately. More than 2 thousand families, i.e. about 25 per cent of the entire population have been employed and directly benefited from the industries. The workers in the different sections are paid monthly wages, the rates of which are decided by common consent in meetings of the Society. The handloom workers earn anything from

Rs. 60/- to Rs. 80/- per month. In the newly started Handicraft Centres, no one earns less than Rs. 40/- per month. At present, due to their pre-occupation with agriculture, they are earning somewhat less.

As a result of the profits, a number of *pucca* buildings have been erected to house the industries.

Markets:

It is to be noted that Markets were developed quickly. Up to 1960, the different Government Departments of the State Government patronised the Project, placing orders for mats, papers and handloom products. Since 1960, through agents and the government emporia, sales have been pushed in Bombay, Delhi and other important cities.

Management:

Except accounts, all the other activities are managed by girls. The over-all management of the project, however, still rests with Government officials.

From the above account, the students may be asked to guess the possible impact of these industries on the general social and economic life of the village and also analyse the causes of success or failure. They can then look at the writer's account of the outcome and analysis and compare them with their own. In this way, they will develop their faculties.

Now let us turn to the outcome as reported by the writer.

OUTCOME

(a) *Economic:*

1. A substantial number of women in the area, have secured employment.

2. Their monthly earnings which average Rs. 60/- have improved their living standards considerably. On the whole, the standard of living has doubled and in some cases more than doubled. The workers now spend much more on food, clothing, etc.

3. The increased cash earnings by a large number of persons has led to a general economic improvement in the whole area. The already established grocers' shops have increased

their sales considerably. Many new shops have come into existence. As an indication of the prosperity of this once decadent area, it can be cited that many people from other areas are coming here in search of work and settling down. These cottage industries have workers who have recently immigrated to the village.

4. With the development of the industries, electricity has come to the village. A new metalled road has also been constructed on which buses run frequently.

5. These developments have opened up further economic possibilities for the whole area.

(b) Social:

1. Perceptible changes in the status of women have occurred. Selection of brides and grooms is still primarily done by the parents, but love marriages and inter-caste marriages no longer meet with vehement opposition. The main considerations in bride selection in this area, especially among the middle classes, are educational qualifications, ability to sing and work and knowledge of handicrafts. The acquisition of skill through work in industries is considered an important qualification and many young women, working in these industries have found eligible husbands.

2. Middle-class girls are now moving about alone freely; young women from respectable families now go to Memari by bus, sometimes alone and sometimes with other girls, to do shopping and to see pictures. Going to bathe in the Ganges by women without male chaperons, is becoming a common feature in this area today. In this emancipation, it was universally acknowledged, the Amadpur girls took the lead. It is significant to note that this freedom among women is particularly noticeable in this area. It is not so marked in neighbouring areas, in Kasipur village for instance, only a few miles away. Thus the original aim of the Project of bringing about social emancipation of women, has, to some extent, been realised.

3. The habit of constantly meeting together to discuss economic problems has led to much greater social intercourse and cohesion among women. In community feasts, which are often held among the workers, it is a common

sight to see young women from different castes and communities, Brahmins, Tilis, Tamblis, Santals, Bagdies and Muslims—all sitting side by side and eating food served by each other.

4. Previously, Durga Puja was held in different *paras*. Now Sarvojanin (universal) Durga Puja is held in the Community Centre which has come into existence as a result of the Project. The villagers say that the building of the Community Centre has been a powerful factor in introducing Sarvojanin or universal Durga Puja. Also a new religious festival, viz. Viswa Karma Puja has been introduced in the social life of the villagers. The dramatic performances which attend this festival where the women producers take part, have not only improved the cultural standards in the villages, but have also helped to broaden village outlook.

But in spite of all these:

1. Dependable leadership among women has not grown.
2. They are not taking part in civic life or other village activities. This still seems to be the men's prerogative.
3. Moreover, jealousy among certain sections grew in the early stages of starting a project among women.

Analysis:

The causes of success are not far to seek. They were due to:

1. extension techniques, e.g. individual contacts, group discussions and meetings which were held repeatedly in different sections of the village,
2. creating good will to begin with,
3. result and method demonstrations,
4. initiative of elderly ladies,
5. financial and managerial aid from outside,
6. dedication of workers,
7. development of markets

But it was a partial success. The main reason for the shortcomings seems to be the pre-occupation of the workers with the economic programme. Had the educational and other work continued side by side, the social regeneration of women might have been much greater.

PROBLEM CASES AND THEIR SOLUTION

Batten Method:

There can be a third way of dealing with case studies. In community development, it is not enough to understand the people, their responsibilities and reactions; nor is it enough to predict the outcome of the situation from a number of facts or analyse the causes of success or failure.

It is highly important for a community development worker to develop skill in community work, not only by understanding or analysing, but also by suggesting ways of solving a problem and by being able to demonstrate the solution himself, if necessary.

This method of treatment has been advocated strongly by Dr. T. R. Batten, who has conducted a series of experiments on these lines in the Institute of Education, London University.

According to this method, a community development worker should be able to see how, if at all, by handling the situation differently the worker could either have avoided the difficulty or alternatively have dealt with it successfully.

In this type of study, cases can be supplied by the trainees themselves after a certain amount of coaching by the Instructor as to how to prepare a case. The cases to be selected should exemplify the kinds of situation with which the students feel least competent to deal with or in which they are most conscious of lack of skill.

A trainee member, while relating one of his failure stories, admits the inadequacy of his own skill in dealing with a situation of this particular kind and requests other members of the group to indicate where he went wrong and just what he should have done to have done better. Because he failed, something must be wrong somewhere. Was his diagnosis incorrect and if so, what factors did he fail to take into account? Was he wrong in his purpose and if so, for just what reasons? Did he create unnecessary difficulties for himself by his manner of speech or action and if so, what alternatively should he have said or done? These are some of the questions, the class must think about and try to answer. Whether the case is being presented by a student or a member of the staff, at

first, it is desirable to give the class a gist of the problem and ask whether everyone agrees that this presents a real problem. No problem should be proceeded with unless and until every one agrees that it is relevant and worth discussing.

The way of presentation should leave no doubts in the minds of the listeners about the situation. The group can then split into a number of sub-groups to sort out their ideas about (a) diagnosis, i.e. finding out why the problem occurred and (b) action, i.e. finding out just what should have been done or not done in order to avoid the unfavourable outcome of the problem satisfactorily.

The plenary session can then reassemble and the sub-groups report their findings as in a seminar. All the suggestions from different groups may be listed on the blackboard. This does not mean, of course, that every suggestion is valid. But it does mean that each suggestion merits further discussion.

Listed points can now be discussed and rediscussed after further break-up which would allow the students to do some more thinking. In this final discussion, some of the points may be rejected outright while others may deserve detailed consideration with the members expressing their own experience.

After the members have agreed on the main outlines of the diagnosis, they can then discuss the alternative line or lines of action the worker might have taken to solve his problem.

Examples or problems should be presented according to an order of complexity—starting with the simpler ones and leaving the complex ones for discussion at a later stage, when both the instructor as well as the students have acquired a certain amount of experience in discussing cases.

Some examples of case discussion of this type are given below:

Example 1

A Block Development Officer recounted a story of how he tried very hard to erect a school for tribals in his Block. There was already a Missionary School for the tribals in that area. But it was some distance away from where the tribals lived.

The Block Development Officer finally succeeded in getting a substantial grant and erected a nice school, but nevertheless found that the tribal boys still went to the Missionary

School even though walking a great distance, while nobody attended his school.

This is a very short and simple case and the students can first try to diagnose the situation and find out why the tribal boys did not go to the Block Development Officer's school. A number of suggestions can be made. It may be that the Block Development Officer did not approach the tribal leaders to get their consent. Then the discussion may veer to how he should have approached the tribal leaders to obtain their consent. Here some knowledge of tribal psychology is required and a little role playing may be called for.

Maybe, the Missionary School gave something to the boys—some kind of assistance which the Block Development Officer could not provide. Therefore, unless the Block Development Officer had made sure that he could supplant the Missionaries, he should not have embarked on his project.

Lastly, if the Missionary School was serving a good purpose and providing good education to the boys, was it necessary for the Block Development Officer to open another school?

These are some of the lines on which the discussion can take place.

Example 2

The second example is taken from the Women's Project described earlier. But this time, we are using part of the material in a different way.

'A group of Community Development workers were trying to introduce an economic programme among village women. They received a good deal of support from the village leaders, but surprisingly enough, some young men of the village opposed the workers to such an extent that in one Industrial Centre for women, one night, some mischievous young men entered and damaged the working utensils and looms which the women were using. The project workers at first asked the villagers to punish the culprits, but when nothing happened, they called in the police to find out the culprits. This alienated the village elders and they withdrew their co-operation from the programme.'

As a case, this is a little more complicated and will require experienced handling. First the diagnosis: why were the

young men opposed to the project and not the elders? Usually it is the contrary. A number of suggestions can be offered here. Perhaps, the youth leaders were not consulted. Or perhaps, the young men were jealous that their sisters were going to earn while they themselves were unemployed. If this was so, the project workers should have started a programme for the young men, side by side with the women, so that jealousy would not have arisen.

But were the elders really sympathetic to the progressive programme or did they pay only lip sympathy? Then again, when the unfortunate incident had taken place what could the project workers have done? Could they expect the village elders to surrender the young miscreants of their own village—some of whom might be their own sons and near relatives? And finally, was it right on the part of the project workers to call in the police? If not, what should they have done?

The situation will raise a series of questions as well as a number of alternative solutions which are designed to increase the skill of the students in handling similar situations.

Hints for the Instructor:

Discussion on a case study, like any other form of discussion, has to be conducted in a free and cordial atmosphere, if the students are to learn how to analyse and explore the possibilities thrown up by the case material. In fact, teaching by the case method rejects the idea that the Instructor can or should anticipate the course of discussion. He should, of course, ask all sorts of questions about the points raised by the students; but he should be prepared for the possibility of hearing something new from the class and he should expect the class to do so.

Actually it is a joint exploration, for the Instructor too, is a part of the high adventure of learning. He learns not only from the case material, but from his students also. For, each group—indeed each individual, reacts to the same case material in a different way. For instance, one student may identify himself with a character in the case; another deal with stereotyped facts rather than the people the case describes; a third may respond more to his feelings towards the Instructor than to the case situation; another may try to say

what the Instructor wants to hear or what the majority of the class will approve, rather than advance his own inner thoughts.

In fact, each case discussion is an interesting study in itself. A keen Instructor can see how people react or interact during the discussion, how they express or suppress their feelings for each other and particularly for the Instructors.

As a first step then, the Instructor should establish rapport with his students, so that discussion will be informal and spontaneous. Knowing his group well, will also help him to choose the appropriate case material. As people gain their insight and their understandings of each situation along different routes and at different speeds, a case which is suitable at some particular stage for one training group may not be suitable for another at the same stage. The Instructor would, therefore, have to choose a particular case for a particular training group.

The Instructor should, of course, know the contents of the material he is presenting, thoroughly. This will enable him to make sure that his students do not miss any relevant facts in the discussion; his thorough knowledge will also enable him to focuss attention on the material, if his students show a tendency to stray away from it, or come to conclusions on imaginary assumptions. He can then refer the group to the nature of the data with questions like:

'How do you know that?' and 'Where did you find this?'

The best thing to do when starting with a fresh batch, would be to select short cases, which can be remembered in detail. As a further step, the case could be typed or cyclostyled and distributed in advance to the group, and the students asked to read it thoroughly and keep it before them during the discussion, so that they could refer to it from time to time.

A good case has many factors in it. One useful approach is to analyse first the activities or events which are described in a given situation. Then the relation between the people concerned and lastly, the sentiments which are revealed by remarks or behaviour in connection with the activities and relations. The student is then in a better position to assess the impact of change upon these aspects of the situation, and

foretell the possible consequences needed for action of some sort and so on.

It is helpful to open the discussion with a question like 'Do you see a problem in the case?' Locating a problem or problems is sometimes the most difficult phase in a case study. But needless to say, such a diagnosis must be made before satisfactory progress can be achieved in discussing or role playing possible lines of action.

With a new batch of students, some training in the case method of discussion may have to be given. The best thing to do would be to read out 2 or 3 model cases before the class to enable the trainees to learn what to look for in a case and how to develop case analysis. When the Instructor feels that his students have acquired sufficient insight, regular case sessions can begin.

The Instructor must make it obvious to the students that cases are not to be used as illustrations of principles, rules or points. As a matter of fact, many students cannot see specific problems clearly. Instead they respond to each case, at first, according to some stereotyped approach. Instead of trying to perceive the internal relation in a given situation, they consider the facts as mere illustrations of some theory or concept. Having classified the material, they may rest satisfied, unaware that instead of effectively dealing with the problems, they have merely found a label for it.

Actually, cases offer an ideal opportunity to test the relevance of a student's experience. Only through the depth study of a particular situation, can they understand the point of view, the concept, feelings, the rivalries and other inter-relationship properly. Above all, they can develop their own point of view and it is the duty of the Instructor to help the students towards this goal.

Ultimately, he encourages the students to understand the nature of their own relations to others. The application of this point of view to the case material requires patience, close attention, and a continual effort to develop fresh insights penetrating the limits of old attitudes.

When the students do not primarily propound the points he considers important, he resists the temptation to lecture at them for he recognises that they can learn only at their

present level and not at the level he would like them to be.

He must also recognise that the students will not acquire new understanding until the case is meaningful to them. Therefore, he will be concerned in making the case material meaningful to each student by concentrating on the points that are of particular interest to them.

Much of the value of discussion will be lost unless students form the habit of directing their remarks to the specific situations before them. Moreover, the Instructor and the students will find it convenient to refer back to something in a previous case or in the discussion of it by the class.

One clear goal for the Instructor would be to induce the students to see the mutual interdependence of the factors in any situation. In particular, he invites them to look at the intangibles that influence human behaviour in specific situations. Ultimately, he encourages the students to understand the nature of his own relations to others.

Initially, the Instructor is likely to find the discussion taking the form of a series of monologues with each student dealing with the case, as it appears to him, with little or no relation to what has been said by others previously in the discussion. Gradually the students will realise that trying to understand one another is more difficult than conducting monologues designed to catch the teacher's attention.

They will also realise that the apparently simple situations are usually complex; that there are many ways of looking at the facts and each of them may be valid from a certain angle; and that each person evaluates the facts differently because of his mental make-up and past experience and current pre-occupations. Once the students have struggled through this confusion, they can proceed with less difficulty on the task of integrating various points of view.

The Instructor can help the students by asking them how they reach their conclusions. He may call the attention of the class to what is happening, because the members are elaborating the case facts, and make this a subject of discussion.

The most difficult task of the Instructor is to draw the students' attention, sometimes to their own experience and

sometimes to other people's. Even when he refers to the teaching material outside the group's own experience, he will have to focuss first on the members and not the cases. The response of the students to any case, tends to take shape according to their basic attitudes, particularly those involving authority and independence. By challenging them, the case method of instruction plunges the students into many uncertainties with the result that they continually demand answers, together with criticisms of the Instructor who will not or cannot give them.

How to prepare case material?

The students will ultimately master the technique of learning from case studies, when they can prepare case material themselves. Preparation of the material will, of course, depend on the point of view and the objectives of the writer. His job will be difficult if he is trying to focuss attention on the feelings of people in a situation. He cannot, for one thing, plan the situation beforehand. He has to select an incident out of the many happenings round him at any moment. Moreover, if the people whom he is observing, realise that they are being observed, they will be self-conscious and it will be very hard for the case writer to get at their real feelings.

The case writer who chooses this type of case, has to be considerably experienced in observation and in picking cases out of incidents, which occur round him daily. He must also be aware of the technique of eliciting people's feelings through informal conversation without letting them know that they are being observed for a particular purpose.

In cases like this, it is useful to include a certain amount of background material, which gives some idea about the thinking of the participants. How much material is to be included, depends on the case writer.

Another important point in this type of case particularly, is to know how much to select from the incident or conversation, and where to cut off. In real life, events do not come to an end, as they do in stories. The ending is something forced upon the writer who may have run out of data. Sometimes the writer cuts off abruptly to pose a problem.

But irrespective of where he cuts off, the test of a good case is whether it has enough material to be of use to the students and to stimulate discussion among them.

In the training centres, material for this type of case, can be collected from among the trainees themselves, by observing their behaviour, group action and interaction in the classes, in the hostel, during manual work, and during meetings of trainees panchayats or co-operatives. All this material can be collected by the Instructors while working with the trainees, without their knowing that they are under observation. The material collected from one batch can be used with a subsequent batch.

There is a lot of scope for this type of case in our training centres, where among other things we want to teach our trainees how to live in groups, and organise co-operatives and panchayats. Actual case studies collected from other batches would help this teaching greatly, as the experience of Mr. Lynton at Aloka shows.

Problem focussing cases:

Collection of material for cases which focuss attention on problems and their solutions is a little easier. For one thing, problems can be culled from a wide field. Community development workers particularly, can prepare case material from the problems which they face, in trying to execute different programmes, some of which they can solve and some of which they cannot. It is the latter which can be used as material for class-room discussions. The students can suggest or role play solutions other than those attempted in the fields.

Secondly, it is easier to record field problems than feelings. In the case of the former, a case writer usually chooses problems from events that have already taken place. He may not get exhaustive material; but he is sure to get some material from different sources.

In case of the latter unless the case writer can remember or garner from other sources, everything everybody said in a particular situation, he will have to select the current situation and observe it. Apart from the difficulties in observation already noted, the situation may ultimately turn out to be useless as a case.

Cases dealing with social change:

The easiest to gather, of course, is case material about an entire programme. The case writer then becomes almost like a student of history. He has to consider the different aspects of the programme, the different factors that entered into it and their effect and inter-action.

As a first step, he can draw up an outline which would include an introductory part focussing attention on the problem to be dealt with by the programme. This can be followed by such situations as the introduction of the programme and the course of events leading to its completion. Evaluation of the results of the programme can come after this has been followed by analysis of factors that made for success or failure and finally, a concluding section where he can make certain general observations about social change.

In the introductory part, apart from stating the problem, the case writer can highlight the special characteristics and the existing practices of the society in which the programme was initiated.

In the next section, he can explain the aims of the particular programme under examination, including also the techniques and strategy to be employed. It is also necessary here to find out if the people perceive the necessity or desirability of bringing about any change in the existing practices in implementing the programme.

He can then go on to describe the beginning of the particular project, giving details about the type of preparation that was made for introducing the new ideas and techniques and the frame of mind with which the initiators of the programme approached the problem.

Details regarding the course of events connected with these specific projects are the most important part of the study, in accordance with the Spicer Method, because the evaluation, analysis and conclusions will be largely dependant upon them. The section should bring the story up-to-date and describe the situation from various angles.

The evaluation of the programme will have to be made by the workers, and also the people who have been affected by the programme. Most important of course, will be the case writer's own evaluation, both in terms of the tangible and

intangible gains achieved. What part of the experiment will have an enduring effect should also be assessed.

Analysis of the causes of success or failure will naturally follow. It is to be noted here that few experiments can be unqualified successes. Therefore, even if a particular programme fails, the reasons for its failure constitute important case material.

In analysing the causes, human and cultural factors, the strength and weakness of the programme and the tactics employed, should all be carefully brought out.

The concluding part should enable the writer or the reader to make certain general observations about social change. The writer, however, will have to qualify his observations by saying, that they will hold good only in similar situations. He may even recommend some techniques of action for such situations.

The best way of collecting data for such case studies would be to visit the area and make some exploratory study, which should not take more than 7 to 10 days. This would give the case writer an idea about the dimension and scope of his study and enable him to make individual contacts which he will need in the area.

It would, of course, be easier for him to write up a case if he himself was a participant in it. This may bias him, to some extent, but on the other hand, he will gain a deep knowledge and insight of the case, which would be difficult for an outside observer to have.

In any case, the research worker, when he seriously begins his work after his preliminary survey, must stay in the area and study the problem for a considerable period to know all its ramifications. From time to time, he can check it with friends or outside observers as he writes up the case and find out what is missing.

Finally, his facts should be relevant and exhaustive. They should be such that anyone reading them would independently come to the same conclusions as he would himself.

CONCLUSION

From all that has been said, it should be obvious that case studies constitute a very valuable learning and teaching

method for extension workers. With their help, a community development worker can get a real insight and understanding of human relationships and behaviour with which he is mostly concerned.

CHAPTER SIX

CREATING CONDITIONS FOR APPLICATION OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES

Section I

ADMINISTRATIVE DIFFICULTIES AND THEIR RECTIFICATION

In discussing educational techniques, it has been assumed so far, that there are no hindrances to their application, whether in the field or in the class-room. But as a matter of fact, the community development programme in most underdeveloped countries, operates under a set of adverse circumstances which sometimes make it very difficult for educational techniques to be applied in the field or in the class-room with full effect.

(a) One way communication:

Some of these difficulties arise from the administrative system prevailing in an underdeveloped country. A large number of these countries, as a legacy of colonialism, still have the bureaucratic system of administration where orders are handed down from superior officers to their subordinates who are not expected to question or command but obey.

This kind of atmosphere which discourages people to think and which hinders a free flow of communication between the superior and the subordinate and between the office executive and the field worker, is obviously detrimental to extension work. It creates unnecessary administrative bottlenecks in different departments, preventing the flow of new knowledge from the laboratories to the field and new problems from the field to the laboratories.

(b) Conservative attitude:

Apart from this, extension work is also hampered by the stereotyped attitude of high-level officials, many of whom have infallible faith in old methods. Their urban bias and

lack of knowledge of rural conditions often make them unsympathetic to new approaches or new methods to be tried out in rural conditions.

(c) *Archaic procedures:*

Archaic administrative procedures also hinder the application of new teaching methods in the field. In some parts of India, for instance, departmental pressure and the administrative rules compel the Gram Sevak to work mostly as a supply agent and not as an extension agent. He is mainly engaged in selling seeds and fertilizers to the cultivators and has little time to spare to set up demonstrations or carry out other extension activities.

(d) *Failure of supplies and services:*

Failure to reach supplies and services in time, as can be seen from the experience of Ghana, the Philippines and Mexico, also adversely affects the application of new educational techniques, because village people soon lose faith in the extension worker who rouses hopes but cannot keep his promises.

Introduction of new methods or materials which have not been properly tested also results in loss of faith in extension work. One often comes across complaints by people in many underdeveloped countries that the seeds supplied by the Government do not germinate or that the agricultural implements sold to them are unsuitable for local conditions.

(e) *Heaping of miscellaneous work:*

Extension workers are further prevented from demonstrating new methods, which require considerable time for preparation, by an enormous amount of miscellaneous work which is piled on them by the authorities. Paid village workers in particular, often have to conduct miscellaneous enquiries or do jobs which have very little connection with their normal educational work.

Even the normal work-load at the village level, is sometimes too heavy for one man to tackle. In India, a Gram Sevak has to look after anything from 10 to 20,000 people within his jurisdiction. Not only does this dilute his services,

but he has to spend most of his time going from place to place. He has often little time to study, think, or prepare for application of extension methods. Even if he sets up one or two demonstrations, he is too pre-occupied to follow them up, which reduces the impact of his educational work.

(f) *Defects in recruitment of workers:*

The poor quality of the extension workers is of course a major impediment. To carry out tasks of such a varied kind as the programme requires, extension workers have to be highly educated and have certain human qualities like humility, sympathy and ability to work with others. These have to be combined with imagination, insight and understanding. Moreover, to be able to maintain good relationship with people in the community as well as with other technical personnel, extension workers have to be mature persons and balanced in judgement, with a capacity for objective self-evaluation and accepting people as they are. Above all, they must have zest for their work and flexibility to try out new approaches and methods in different situations.

All these constitute a formidable list of requirements. It is difficult, if not impossible in underdeveloped countries, to find workers in large numbers who have these qualities. Some may have human qualities and the necessary qualifications and aptitude for work in the villages, but their educational standards are so low that it is not possible for them to acquire the minimum amount of technical skill necessary to advise the villagers. On the other hand, there may be qualified people in towns and cities; but either they are reluctant to work in villages or do not have the aptitude for this type of work.

One of the main stumbling blocks in securing efficient and suitable personnel, is the low scale of pay. Even where people have all the qualifications, the salaries offered them are so low that they are reluctant to come.

Apart from the low scale of pay, the channels of promotion are few and the prospects of promotion remote. Moreover, living conditions in the interior areas are so appalling that often extension workers cannot work without detriment to their health.

(g) *Remedies:*

Therefore, if extension work is to succeed, archaic procedures have to be replaced by new procedures, the work-load of the field workers has to be reduced, channels of promotion and other incentives have to be devised, bureaucratic attitudes and red tapism have to be discarded and recruitment has to improve so that persons with the right aptitude and ability can be enrolled.

All can be rectified by a general change in administrative procedures in the underdeveloped countries. But this change will not come about unless the administrators themselves alter their existing attitudes. The ultimate remedy, therefore, would lie in transforming the outlook of the administrators through a system of training and general education.

Section II

DEFECTS IN TRAINING AND THEIR RECTIFICATION

Hindrances to extension work due to defective training:

But an extension worker is not only hampered in his work by adverse administrative conditions or the other factors mentioned above. The quality of his work also suffers because of defective training. He cannot teach villagers, because he has little to teach. He is rendered ineffective by lack of knowledge and proper communication methods.

(a) Short duration of training:

While training systems or methods of training vary among the underdeveloped countries, certain defects seem to be common. Some of them, like shortness in the duration of training, is perhaps unavoidable in view of the necessity of training a large number extension workers within a short period in most underdeveloped countries.

(b) Difficulty of training heterogeneous groups:

Along with shortness in the duration of training, is the general problem of devising a common training programme

for heterogeneous groups. Any trainer can appreciate the acuteness of the problem when he has to cope with the necessity of training a mixed group of individuals who differ not only in experience but also in educational attainments and levels of understanding. This often results in the training being either comprehensible to some and not to others, or useful solely for the dumbest minds and unbearably boring for the rest.

(c) *Unrealistic training:*

There also seems to be a general lack of understanding in the training centres of the job requirements of different categories of workers who are undergoing training. As a consequence, one often comes up against the criticism that the training of a community development worker is divorced from the practical realities he has to encounter. Either the content of his training is overloaded with theory or he is taught a number of subjects or skills which are practically of no use to him in the field. Even where there is an understanding in the training institutions of the job requirements of the trainees, the institutions, in many cases, do not possess the facilities to either impart the necessary manual skills which will be useful or to give the trainees sufficient practice and experience of working with villagers in actual or simulated situations.

(d) *Poor quality of teaching staff:*

But in most cases, the training is defective because of the poor quality of the staff in training centres. This is nothing to be wondered at, in view of the low pay-scales, unattractive service conditions and poor educational standards in most underdeveloped countries. The persons who are recruited, enter this field, not from a genuine love for their work, but because they can find nothing better. They confine themselves to doing what they consider to be the minimum and soon develop a stereotyped attitude to teaching. As a result of their attitude and general lack of dynamism, the instructors fail to enthuse their trainees or inculcate some idealism among them.

(e) *Absence of national policy in training:*

Lastly, training also suffers in some countries from the lack of a co-ordinated and comprehensive plan. In India, for instance, the importance of training in community development, is not taken with the same seriousness by different departments or agencies, with the result that numerous officials go without training because their parent departments do not see the necessity of training them for community development.

(f) *Remedies:*

(i) *Provision of continuous training:* That there cannot be immediate remedies for all these defects, is obvious. But whilst awaiting a long-term solution, it is possible to effect some immediate improvements in some areas of training at least. The shortness in the duration of training, for instance, can be partly remedied by providing periodic training, both pre-service and in-service, to an extension worker.

It is to be remembered that, however thorough pre-service training is, it can never suffice in community development for various reasons. In the first place, the programme is dynamic. It is continually throwing up problems which require fresh approaches. The training has accordingly to be revised periodically. The training that was imparted, for instance, in India before 1959, has now become largely obsolete, in view of the development of local government institutions under 'Panchayati Raj'.

Secondly, this training is to be based mainly on an understanding of field problems. In pre-service training, in spite of the valiant efforts of the trainers, the practical experience that the trainees will get, can never match their real work experience, which they can only acquire when they have worked in the field for some time.

For these reasons, pre-service training should be supplemented by in-service training. This can be a short course as it may not be possible to spare the workers for longer periods. During these in-service courses, fresh field problems can be brought up and discussed which will enable the staff of the training centre to remain up-to-date about the actual situation in the field.

It is not advocated, of course, that the trainees should be given only a minimum of training at the outset. Every community development worker should be thoroughly conversant with his job when he sets out to work. Otherwise, his confidence in his ability as well as that of others in him may deteriorate and this may influence his attitude later. But as education in community development is a continuous process there should be a comprehensive pre-service training followed intermittently by in-service courses.

(ii) *Improvement in the quality of instructors*: The improvement in the quality of Instructors can be effected by introducing enhanced scales of pay, and stricter recruitment. A large number of qualified persons will not be available, of course, till there is an improvement in the general educational system of an underdeveloped country. But more attractive service conditions and stricter recruitment should improve the existing situation somewhat.

In appointing teaching staff for training centres, one has to remember that educational qualifications or even specialised skills are not enough. An Instructor's ability as a teacher is reflected in his entire attitude and behaviour towards others. He must create such an environment or atmosphere that whosoever comes in contact with him, will feel enthused or inspired. Above all, he must himself have those qualities or attitudes which he wants his trainees to have.

What does this mean precisely? It means that every Instructor must be devoted to his work, must take personal interest in each trainee and his welfare and also guide him in his day-to-day activities. He should be a friend and philosopher to the trainees and be prepared to listen to and advise them on personal matters. He should participate in the camp life, cultural functions and extra-curricular activities in the training centres. In fine, he should be able to leave a lasting impression on the minds of his students by his manner and general qualities as a person.

To select a man of this sort, it may be necessary to give him only provisional appointment for a period of, say, 6 months, during which he should be tried out and studied closely. If he does not measure up to the standards mentioned above, his services should be terminated. But even after formal appoint-

ment, his performance must be periodically reviewed. An Instructor must put forth continuous effort to improve his knowledge and skill as a teacher. He must continually expand his knowledge on his own subject and in other relative fields, because community development deals with life in its entirety. To achieve this, he must periodically read and attend study circles where he can discuss different subjects with his colleagues and review the latest books and articles on his subject. These study circles would provide academic guidance and improve his skill to some extent.

(iii) *Decentralised non-institutional training*: But what about the problem of making the training more field-oriented? As has been stated, no training centre even with the best of facilities, can provide exact field experience to a trainee. To surmount this obstacle, at least partially, a number of short-term training camps and seminars in villages or in areas close to an extension worker's place of work can be organised. These camps and seminars should supplement normal institutional training.

This type of decentralised non-institutional training can, of course, never muster the resources, the thoroughness or the academic ability of training centres. But on the other hand, being in the vicinity of the field, camps and seminars have a far greater chance of focussing attention on immediate practical problems than the normal training centres, which are usually situated in towns or urban localities.

Field training has certain disadvantages. Problems of accommodation, catering and other domestic arrangements present numerous obstacles and at best only short courses can be provided. But on the other hand, this type of training can be imparted much more economically and to a larger group than institutional training.

In the case of voluntary workers, the choice is not so much between institutional training and field training, as between field training and no training at all. Many of them are busy people and unwilling to leave their homes and come to formal training institutions. This is one of the reasons why the participation of voluntary workers in formal training programmes is very meagre.

Actually, an extensive programme of field training is the

only way of teaching people who will attend very short local courses, but who cannot and will not come to a training centre.

In the training of voluntary workers, the best course would be to provide basic orientation training through camps or seminars and then select experienced leaders after some time, to attend orientation courses in formal training centres.

IMPROVEMENTS IN FORMAL TRAINING

(i) *Making the extension worker more plan-minded*: Formal training can also be improved considerably. There are at least three or four distinct areas where teaching can be rendered effective and field-oriented. In the first place, every extension worker should be made plan-minded through this training. Planning in extension work has three or four aspects. There is, for instance, the question of long-term planning of programmes. Every extension worker must have an annual, biennial or even quinquennial plan of programme execution. This type of planning will impart an over-all direction and long-term perspective to his work. To prepare these plans, he has to conduct an elaborate survey of his area, assess local resources and needs and fix targets. Periodic evaluation of the work accomplished, would also come under his over-all planning.

To enable an extension worker to achieve all this, the training he undergoes should equip him mainly through class-room lectures and audio-visual aids, in the matter of the fundamental principles and calculations involved in planning and fixation of targets. He can also be given some practice in drawing up actual plans in villages where training centres have experimental villages attached to them.

Scientific methods of data collection, interviewing techniques, collating data, calculations involved in drawing up targets and lastly, procedures of evaluation can initially be learnt in the class-room under the expert guidance of the Instructor. He can then apply his knowledge in the experimental villages, in drawing up annual plans of village development, including agricultural and industrial production plans.

Apart from long-term planning, the extension worker has to be taught planning of immediate programmes which involve a considerable amount of initial preparation. If, for instance, he is thinking of launching a production campaign during

the next few months—in, let us say, jute, paddy or any other crop—he must plan elaborately an intensive educational campaign to inspire the farmers to increase production. This educational campaign will involve giving short talks, showing audio-visual aids, method and result demonstrations, follow-up activities, field trips and other teaching methods. An enormous amount of initial work including formal and informal contacts with the people through mass meetings and home visits, preparation of audio-visual materials and talks and collection of modern implements and other demonstration equipment, will have to precede this educational campaign. Unless the extension worker is made plan-minded during his training and develops an eye for detail, he is not likely to succeed under the difficult field conditions in which he has to operate.

Apart from long-term and short-term planning, the extension worker must have the imagination and the training continually to plan new approaches and new schemes wherever possible. If, for instance, he finds that the existence of local raw materials and markets would warrant the introduction of a new cottage industry which may provide employment to a number of people, he should be able to draw up a feasible scheme within the resources and the administrative powers at his disposal. At the moment, few extension workers are mentally equipped to draw up new schemes or experiment with new methods of work. Most of them prefer to work in a stereotyped manner, the programme which is handed down to them by someone else—usually a superior officer.

Planning of new schemes in, let us say, methods of irrigation, rural industries, dairy farming, crop rotation, etc. by a village extension worker can be possible if he is given practical training in drawing up schemes. Special projects can be assigned to him by his Instructors and he can collect data and detailed factual information about the projects under their guidance to draw up model schemes. If, for instance, he is drawing up a workable scheme on weaving, he should be attached to an actual weaver during his practical training, so that he can collect detailed information about the implements and the process of manufacture, employment potential and market conditions. He should eventually be able to draw up a feasible scheme with a balance sheet showing the total

expenditure, the income and employment opportunities that will arise if the scheme is implemented. Needless to say, this sort of practice will make him plan-minded generally.

Lastly, he is to be taught how to be methodical in his work. He must have a detailed plan of action every day. He can accomplish this by enumerating the items of work he is going to tackle on a particular day in his diary, and by ticking them off on completion. The incomplete items can be carried over to the next day's list. He must also have a tour plan, so that he can systematically and regularly cover his entire area, bestowing equal attention on every village in his charge. In his diary, he must also maintain a record of the work he does, his own evaluation of it and a plan for future work. All these, he can be taught through formal training in the training centre which should insist on each trainee maintaining a daily diary of activities.

(ii) *Training extension workers in audio-visual techniques:* The second major area where the extension worker can be effectively trained lies in the application of educational techniques like short talks, use of audio-visual aids, method and result demonstrations and field trips.

(a) *Short talks:*

Elaborate planning of lectures is not essential for village audiences. But short talks centred round three or four points, can be prepared by extension workers for the benefit of rural people. These can be delivered while conducting demonstrations or on formal occasions like mass meetings.

As villagers will be mainly concerned with practical problems, the short talks can follow the problem-centred arrangement of subject matter as described in Chapter II. In other words, the extension worker can begin his talk by stating the problem which is exercising the attention of the villagers, follow it up by describing some of the causes of the problem and end the talk by suggesting remedies.

He should be given enough practice in preparing such talks while receiving training. He may be asked periodically to prepare talks on different subjects and then during practice sessions, he can deliver a short talk prepared by him before the other trainees, who will evaluate it afterwards.

(b) *Audio-visual aids:*

The same is true of audio-visual aids. At first the trainees can be apprised of all the existing audio-visual aids and then asked to concentrate on those aids which they can profitably use in rural situations, such as flash-cards, flannel graphs, roll-up blackboards, posters, models and exhibits, etc. They should be particularly taught how to prepare inexpensive aids like flash-cards and flannel graphs and should also be asked to demonstrate before others how to use the same.

(c) *Method and result demonstration:*

Training in setting up and supervising result and method demonstrations is already under way in India and other countries. But this has to be intensified. The intensity of training in this area will depend, of course, on the physical facilities available in the training centres.

Extension of the period of training is another prerequisite for intensive training in setting up method and result demonstrations which require a good deal of initial preparation. Result demonstrations, particularly in agriculture, have to be carried over a whole season and the demonstration effect sometimes becomes obvious only after one or two years. A minimum of two years' training would, therefore, seem to be necessary for all village level extension workers who are concerned with the improvement of agriculture.

(d) *Field trips:*

Organisation of field trips, is another area which requires much greater attention than has hitherto been accorded to it. While receiving training, extension workers may be encouraged to organise field trips on the lines described earlier in this book. They should carry note-books with them when undertaking field trips and record their observations systematically.

It would be better, however, if an extension worker is taught how to use a number of methods in combination, because in actual field situations they have to use a variety of methods, sometimes simultaneously. He can be assigned a project either in the training centre or in the experimental village, if there is one, and asked to plan a number of teaching methods in connection with the project. If, for instance, the

project is introduction of the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation in a village, the trainees should be asked to plan a number of short talks on the subject which are to be supplemented wherever possible by audio-visual aids. He can prepare a short lesson plan with the talking points and the particular aids he is going to use in his lecture. The comprehensive plan of the project may then include a field trip to a successful Japanese farm to rouse the enthusiasm of a number of selected cultivators. This trip has also to be planned in meticulous detail. He may also have to follow this up by demonstrating the use of improved implements like the Paddy Weeder or improved methods like line sowing of paddy. He should also plan the follow-up which he would undertake during the method and result demonstrations. Finally, he must visualise the steps to be taken to meet the demand of the farmers for seeds, fertilisers and irrigation water, when they are convinced about the efficacy of the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation. This would give him an excellent idea about the use of educational methods in combination.

(iii) *Training in group discussion*: Another major area where the extension worker can be effectively trained, is in conducting and participating in group discussion, which is probably the most common method of communicating with the villagers. Therefore, the extension worker, whether he is doing supervisory or direct field work, must know how to handle group discussions. In this, effective training can be imparted in the training centre itself. Each trainee can be made in turn, the chairman of a group consisting of 7 or 8 people and the subject for discussion can be given to him. While the discussion proceeds, other trainees and instructors who constitute the audience, can watch how the group is participating in the discussion and particularly how the chairman is doing his part. An important lacuna with most people is that they start a meeting without an agenda. Moreover, there is a tendency for the chairman himself to dominate the meeting. Thirdly, few chairmen take the trouble of summarising from time to time and going on to the next item on the agenda. All these points can be observed by the larger group and their reactions can be conveyed to the smaller group after the discussion is over. Through these practice sessions, each

trainee can acquire sufficient experience in the training centre on participation in group discussion. Something of this sort is being done at present, in many training centres, though not to an appreciable extent.

(iv) *Training in community organisation*: But the major area where very little has been accomplished so far, is in making the trainee effective in his dealings with others, particularly village groups, leaders and factions. Community organisation and leadership in rural areas, is a novel subject and most Instructors do not possess enough practical experience themselves to teach these subjects effectively. In the last analysis, of course, ability to work with people would depend a great deal on the personality of the extension worker. Certain basic human qualities like sympathy or affection, sincerity or imagination must be present but they cannot be developed through training. However, assuming that an extension worker has these qualities, he can be trained to work with people in two ways:

- (a) by actually acquiring such experience through execution of different programmes in experimental villages during his period of training and,
- (b) through contrived experience in the training centre, such as role playing or case studies. By selecting actual cases from villages or the recorded experience of other extension workers working in similar situations, or by imagining himself in contrived situations and plotting alternative lines of action as described in the section on 'Role Playing', the trainees can gain some initial insight in working with people.

EVALUATION OF TRAINING

(a) *Written tests*:

Lastly, the question of evaluation of training is to be considered. How can one know whether the training being imparted is effective and is turning out extension workers expert in demonstrating new teaching methods? There is need, therefore, of periodic evaluation of training on a number of points. There should be assessment of assimilation of lectures, participation in discussions, and use of audio-visual aids by

trainees through written tests and the other evaluation methods described earlier.

(b) Follow-up of training in the field:

But the most important evaluation is, perhaps, observing the trainee in the field, after he has completed his training. This evaluation should be periodically done by a team of Instructors, each Instructor evaluating that section of the training he has been responsible for. A proforma, on the lines given below, can be drawn up by the observation team who should carry out their observations together. The advantage of joint observation is that the Instructors can supplement one another in their observations.

PROFORMA FOR EVALUATION

I. Planning and Evaluation:

1. Do you have a—
 - (i) long-term plan of work?
 - (ii) short-term plan of work?
2. How are they drawn up?
3. Do you involve others in drawing up your plans?
4. Have you drawn up any new schemes and tried to put them into operation?
5. Do you maintain a daily diary and plan of tours?

II. Use of teaching methods:

1. Do you plan your talks? How?
2. What audio-visual aids have you used during the last quarter?
3. How have you prepared and used them?

III. Demonstrations and field trips:

1. How many demonstrations did you set up during the last quarter?
2. What are the different steps you have taken in setting them up?
3. What field trips did you organise and how did you organise them?

IV. *Discussions:*

1. Have you organised in the villages—
 - (a) Seminars?
 - (b) Panel discussions?
 - (c) Small group discussions?
2. Did you keep any minutes of the discussions and the names of the people who have actively participated in it?

Each extension worker should be able to produce some record on the basis of which some assessment about his performance and assimilation of training can be made. If he does not keep any records, it would prove that he is neither plan-minded nor methodical. Apart from records, which should be checked at random, the team of Instructors should actually see him as he works in the field conducting discussions, setting up demonstrations and planning programmes.

CONCLUSION

To sum up: community development is primarily an educational programme because it tries to bring about necessary improvements in village life through a change in the attitudes and habits of people. This change is attempted through extension work—through the use of educational techniques like short-talks, discussions, method and result demonstrations, field trips, audio-visual aids, etc. The effective use of these educational techniques is, therefore, the key to success in the community development programme.

But educational techniques are not being used effectively now. This is because the general environment for extension work in most underdeveloped countries is unfavourable due to administrative bottlenecks, archaic procedures and bureaucratic attitudes of administrators. These difficulties can be rectified and a favourable atmosphere for extension work can be created if archaic rules and procedures are replaced by suitable rules and procedures. But these rules and procedures will not be forthcoming unless the administrators themselves change their attitudes. This change can only come about through an improvement in general education and training.

The other main reason—why educational techniques are not being effectively used, is that extension workers do not

have adequate knowledge or skill to use them. This can only be rectified by better training.

Training then assumes crucial importance in community development. It is important because only through training can responsible administrators form a clear idea about community development and its requirements, so as to engender necessary administrative changes. Training is also important, because it can enable extension workers to use educational techniques effectively. Lastly, training is important because it can make the vast army of village leaders, progressive farmers, school teachers and other voluntary workers realise their roles in community development.

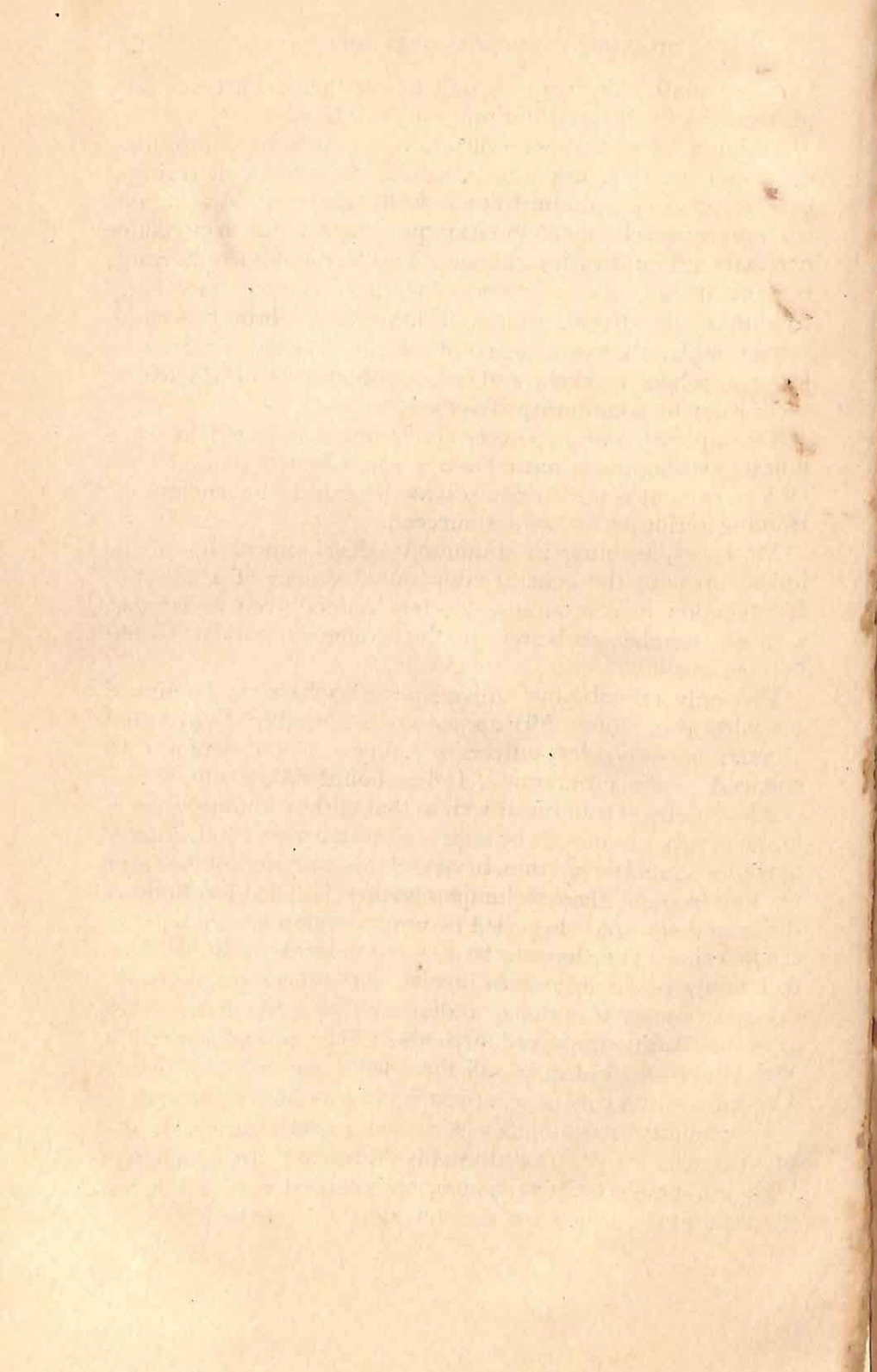
To improve training, every government engaged in community development must have a co-ordinated plan. Unless all government departments, private leaders and agencies take training seriously, it cannot succeed.

Moreover, training in community development has to be linked up with the general educational system of a country. If education in community development is given in schools, a larger number of better quality extension workers would become available.

Not only schools, but universities also have to be linked up with this. Some African countries, notably Kenya and Ghana, have regular university courses for all senior staff engaged in the programme. India should follow suit.

The quality of training as well as that of the community development programme can be improved by a better application of new educational techniques. In view of this, considerable research work to improve these techniques further, is called for. Some of these methods are being tried in underdeveloped countries for the first time. They have to be adapted to local conditions. New techniques of discussions to involve the village people, more extensive use of traditional audio-visual devices, better ways of demonstrating improved methods of hygiene and sanitation, agriculture and industry—all these will have to be discovered. The universities can play a prominent part in this research.

Community development is as yet in its infancy. It is a programme which is continually throwing up challenges. Only a dynamic training system, based on educational techniques adapted to local needs, can meet this challenge.



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INDEX

A

- Adaptive type, 6, 8, 9
- Administrative Coordination, 26, 134-5, 141
- Administrative Intelligence, 124
- Agriculture
 - demonstrations, 97-8
 - production plans, 50, 97, 164-5
- Ajanta, 80
- America, 4, 39, 54
- Analogy method, 43, 160
- Analytic method, 176, 178-9
- Antony, Mark, 41
- Aristotle, 26
- Asia, 3
- Asstt. Mass Education Officer, 9
- Atomic energy, 124
- Audio-visual aids
 - meaning of, 51
 - types of, 51, 80
 - evaluation of, 81-9
- Aural aids, 79
- Authoritarian leadership, 156

B

- Bargraph, 72-3
- Barrio Level Worker, 9
- Baroda, 170
- Barseem, 109
- Basic Education, 112
- Batten method, 211-4
- Belaiti, 4
- Better Village Plan, 14
- Bengal, 81
- Bible, 00
- Blackboard
 - uses of, 60
 - how to use, 61
 - colour of, 61
 - member, 158, 166
- Block, 7, 103, 110, 131, 141, 182
- B.D.O., 7, 26, 33, 44, 79, 83, 103, 123, 127, 131, 134-5, 183, 212
- Brains trust, 134
- Brayne, 25
- Brooders, 109
- Brutus, 41
- Buddhists, 113
- Buzz session, 133-4

C

- Caesar, 41
- Caleratres, 109

- Camps, 174
- Campaign method, 184
- Capitza, Peter, 161
- Camus, Albert, 5
- Cartoon, 76-7
- Case study
 - definition, 200
 - how do we learn from, 201
 - different approaches to, 201-4
- Caste, 5, 163
- Cassius, 41
- Charts
 - uses of, 68
 - types of, 60-71
- Christians, 113
- Churchill, W., 184
- Clustertype Training Centre, 171
- Community Development
 - meaning of, 1-2
 - Blocks, 174
 - assumptions, 2-4
 - objectives, 4-5
 - techniques, 5-6, 13-4
 - programme & organisation, 6-13, 182
 - educational nature of, 14-9
 - Training Institution, 45, 135, 138, 199
- Communist countries, 30-1, 87-8
- Community organisation, 5
- Co-operation, 27, 43, 50
- Cottage industries, 31, 204, 207

D

- Debate, 133
- D.D.T., 103
- Deductive method, 42, 160
- Deep Litter System, 108
- Deficit financing, 35
- Delhi, 36
- Democracy
 - democratic decentralization, 27
 - democratic leadership, 156
- Demonstration
 - Importance of, 90-2
 - types of, 92
- Department of Social Welfare, 8, 12
- Deshi, 4
- Dey, S. K., 18
- Discussion
 - advantages of, 113-4
 - types of, 114-34
 - how to organise, 134-7
 - quality of chairman, 137-9
 - dealing with difficult members, 142-3, 146-9

- how to conduct, 143-6
- group centred discussion, 156-8
- conducting village discussion, 162-5
- evaluation of, 165-9
- Disney, Walt, 56
- Divided bar graph, 72
- Documentary films, 52, 57

E

- Eclectic method, 176, 180-1
- Egypt, 13, 32
- Epidiascope, 60
- Europe, 2
- Exhibits, 78-9
- Evaluation, 158

F

- Farmers' forum, 162
- Felt need, 3, 6, 27
- Field trips
 - how to organise, 104-7
 - follow up, 107-10
- Films
 - advantages of, 52-4
 - How to use, 54-7
- Filmstrips
 - usefulness of, 57-8
 - how to use, 58-9
- Five Year Plans, 33, 88-9, 124
- Flannelgraphs
 - uses in other countries, 62
 - advantages, 65-6
 - how to use, 66-8
- Flashcards
 - types of, 64
 - effectiveness of, 64
- Flow chart, 68-9
- Folk
 - dramas, 80
 - media of communication, 80

G

- Gandhiji, 25
- Geeta, 161
- Gir, 108
- Ghana, 8, 9, 11-4, 44, 224
- Gram Panchayat, 7, 28, 69
- Gram Sevaks, 7, 50, 64, 79, 81, 83, 92, 103, 107, 126, 132, 135, 163
- Gram Sevikas, 7
- Graphs
 - why necessary, 71
 - types of, 71-5
- Gray, W. S., 181
- Grow More Food Campaign, 33-4

H

- Haryana, 108, 110
- Haringhata, 107
- Hatch, Spencer, 25
- Hen battery system, 108
- Henderson Box, 12

I

- India, 4-7, 9, 13-4, 31, 44, 52-4, 62, 93, 118, 138, 160-1, 169, 176, 183-3, 224
- Indian
 - planning, 31
 - administration, 141
- Inductive method, 42-3, 160
- Instructor
 - hints reg. using films, 55-6
 - how to handle case studies, 214-8
 - improvement in the quality of, 229-30
 - follow-up of training by, 237-8
- Instructional film, 53
- Interexaminer correlation, 86-9
- Integrative type, 6, 7, 9
- Iran, 12

J

- Jamaica, 13, 14, 44
- Japan, 3, 4, 183
- Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation, 18, 22, 58, 64, 81
- Jatra, 80
- Jute industry, 33

K

- Khandana, 30
- Kavigan, 81

L

- Laissez-faire leadership, 156
- Latin America, 9
- Laubach, Frank, 11, 176
- Lebanon, 13
- Lecture
 - need for, 20-3
 - chronological arrangement, 24-5
 - problem centred arrangement, 25-6
 - logical arrangement, 26-8
 - structural arrangement, 28
 - arrangement according to importance, 29
 - arrangement according to contrast, 30
 - assignment, 31
 - how to deliver, 35-42
 - evaluation, 46-9

Leibnitz, 26
 Lesson Plan, 32-5
 Lewin, Kurt, 156
 Liberation province, 13
 Literacy
 —methods of, 176-81
 —organisation of, 181-3
 Local Government, 31, 50
 Loksabha, 69
 Lynton method, 202-3

M

Magsaysay, 7, 8
 Mahila Mandals, 162
 Malaysia, 44
 Mammoth Incubator, 108
 Mass Education Officer, 8, 9
 Mayer, A. 25
 Method demonstration
 —steps, 93-4
 —advantages of, 94-5
 —examples of, 95
 Mexico, 32, 44, 224
 Microphone, 80
 MIG deal, 39
 Ministry of C.D. & Cooperation, 7, 18, 115
 Ministry of I. & B., 80
 Models, 77-8
 Mould Board Plough, 107
 Multiple bars, 72
 Murrah Buff, 108

N

National Development Council, 25
 N.E.S. 7, 25
 Netherlands, 96
 New Hampshire, 108
 Nigeria, 44

O

Open Pen System, 108
 Oppenheimer, Dr., 161
 Orissa, 120
 Orientation
 —course, 33
 —training, 142, 231
 outsider, the, 5

P

Pakistan, 11, 33, 160-1
 Panchayati Raj, 7, 28, 120, 228
 Para Grass, 109
 Parliament of religions, 40

Panel, 120-3
 Personnel chart, 69
 Philippines, 7-8, 13, 32, 44, 224
 Pictograph, 75
 Piechart, 71-2
 Planning, 30, 31
 Plato, 113
 Plenary session, 66, 116, 118
 Population explosion, 16
 Posters, 75-6
 Presidential Assistant, 7
 Programme Evaluation Organisation, 161
 Projected aids, 52
 Project type, 6, 9
 Puppet shows, 80-1
 Purba Paksha, 30

R

Radio Rural Forum, 80
 Rajasthan, 81
 Rama, 81
 Raman, K. S. V., 199
 Ramlila, 80
 Reading
 —types of, 184
 —developing better test in, 185-6
 —utilising books, 190-1
 —important habits, 191
 —in C.D. Institutions, 199
 Recorder, 158, 166, 170
 Reasoning
 —methods of, 42, 44
 —applicability in discussion, 159-62
 Resource men, 170
 Result demonstration
 —steps, 91-8
 —advantages and limitations of, 98-103
 —examples, 103
 —training in, 103
 R.I.R., 108
 Role Playing
 —utility of, 126
 —how to organise, 128-32
 —where to use, 132
 Roman, 41
 Rural
 —Sociology, 50
 —Engineer, 7
 —Training Centres, 12
 Russia, 4, 39, 182-3

S

Sahiwal, 108, 110
 Savitri, 81
 Scotland, 61

Seed Saturation Programme, 164
 Seminar, 115-8
 Shakespeare, 41
 Sindhi
 Sita, 81
 Slides, 59
 Small Savings, 34
 Social Education
 —organiser, 7, 64, 67, 81, 127, 182
 —Centre, 141
 Socialistic pattern, 34
 Socrates, 30, 112
 Soviet type of planning, 35
 Spicer method, 203, 204
 Steering Committee, 66
 Strontium 90, 161
 Structural arrangement, 28
 Symposium, 123-5
 Syndicate studies, 118-20

T

Table chart, 69, 70
 Tagore, R., 25
 Tape Recorder, 79
 Testimony method, 44, 160
 Thailand, 44
 Tharkarkar, 108, 110
 Third Five Year Plan, 33, 34, 35
 Training
 —defects in, 226-8
 —remedies, 228-36
 —evaluation of, 236-8
 Training Camps, 174
 Traditional Extension Methods, 24
 Tree Charts, 70-1
 Trials, 91-2

U

Uganda, 44

U.K., 30, 62, 77
 U.N. Evaluation Mission, 161
 UNESCO, 11, 76
 Untouchability, 5
 U.S.A., 30, 62, 77, 96, 148, 157, 169
 U.S. Educational Foundation, 170
 Uttar Paksha, 30

V

V.A.S., 7
 Vedic Seer, 113
 Vegetabull, 67
 Village
 —literacy Committee, 11
 —level worker, 6, 9, 81
 —leaders' training camps, 174
 Vivekananda, 25, 40

W

West Germany, 2, 3
 Western countries, 66
 White Leghorn, 108
 White Sussex, 108
 White Plymouth, 108
 White Yorkshire, 109
 Workshop
 —distinctive feature of, 112, 169
 —steps in planning, 170-3
 World War II, 1, 3, 115, 169

Y

Youth Clubs, 162-3

Z

Zilla Parishad, 7, 28



[Contd.]

1947 and for a time worked in a Research Organization called "Khoj Parishad" which was set up by Sri Jay Prokash Narayan. While working there, he published a pamphlet on Coal Nationalization in India in collaboration with Sri Subrata Ray Chowdhury. He also worked during this period in the rural areas of Bengal doing village development work, with Anglo-American Quakers.

In writing this book, he has drawn frequently from his wide experience as a Project Executive Officer of a Community Development Block, District Development Officer, Assistant Director of Panchayats and his present assignment as the Principal, Orientation and Study Centre, Kalyani.

EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community development has to-day assumed worldwide significance, because it is the only programme, which, if successful, can ensure the permanence of democracy in under-developed countries.

But because its emphasis is on the change that takes place in the people socially and psychologically, the success of community development depends primarily on the educational techniques it uses.

This book, therefore, deals with these basic educational techniques such as group discussions, talks, audio-visual aids, results and method demonstrations, field trips, etc., only the proper use of which can bring about the necessary social and psychological change in the people.

The book has been written mainly with the object of increasing the skill of extension workers in the use of these educational techniques.

But the wide variety of techniques which the book discusses in detail would also make it useful to anyone interested in the progress of adult education in underdeveloped countries.

ORIENT LONGMANS